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ACHIEVEMENT EXPECTATIONS AND STUDENT ATTITUDES IN
TEN SELECTED MANITOBA SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

by



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A THESIS

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Achievement Expectations and Student Attitudes in Ten Selected Manitoba Senior High Schools" submitted by John Whitmore Peach in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate relationships between differences in student and teacher expectations for achievement and student attitudes about certain aspects of education, their associates, and the world of work.

A typology of conflict was developed, based on the assumption that conflict is a central fact of adolescence. Three types of conflict were identified as pertinent to the problem and four dimensions of conflict were suggested as particularly applicable to adolescence: sex, status, responsibility, and achievement. Of the resulting twelve possible cells of conflict, one only, school achievement, was selected for investigation.

Data were collected by questionnaires administered to teachers and students in ten selected high schools. One hundred and seventy-seven questionnaires were completed by teacher respondents and 3,378 were completed by student respondents. Data provided by all of the teachers (N = 177) and a twenty-five per cent sample of the students (N = 952) were selected for analysis.

Data on differing expectations for achievement were secured from the administration of Rosen's Achievement Orientation Test. No significant differences occurred among teacher scores. Differences in student scores were significant where social class, grade level, school size, and school location were independent variables; no significant differences occurred among the ten individual schools or between sexes.

A conflict index for each school was developed by computing the differences between student and teacher mean scores on the Achievement Orientation Test. Schools were ranked according to the indices with the five schools having the largest indices designated as high conflict schools

and the remaining five schools designated as low conflict schools. Relationships were tested between low and high conflict schools and student attitudes and occupational aspiration levels by use of the chi square statistic.

A general indication of student attitudes towards education, associates, and the world of work was obtained from student replies to twenty-three questions in the Student's Questionnaire. The analyses indicated that four of the twenty-three relationships tested were significant. The results indicate the existence of a very weak relationship between the conflict indices and student attitudes towards education, associates, and the world of work.

Level of occupational aspiration scores were obtained from student responses to Haller's Occupational Aspiration Scale. Respondents in schools with a low conflict index had higher aspirations than students in schools with a high conflict index.

A factor analysis of forty-two items of the Student's Questionnaire was performed. Intercorrelation of factor scores and other variables revealed that length of residence in the community and grade level were related to the conflict indices.

Two principal conclusions were reached. First, little support existed for the theoretical formulation on which the study was based. Second, student replies provided additional support for previous studies of Canadian high school adolescents. Manitoba students appeared to hold values similar to students studied elsewhere in Canada; essentially, they are conservative and hold values parallel to those of the adult culture.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AREA

I. INTRODUCTION

This study is unique not so much in terms of its methodology and analysis as in terms of its attempt to draw together certain sociological and psychological positions. The central concern is with the influence on adolescent behavior of adult expectations. In a typical school situation, an adult (teacher or principal) expects certain kinds of behavior (based on indications such as previous school record, family background, social setting, and degree of urbanization of the school setting) from an adolescent (the pupil). The adolescent responds to these expectations as he perceives them and behaves, to a degree, in accordance with these perceptions.

The adolescent, however, has expectations of himself and for himself. To the extent that these self-expectations are consonant with those of the adults in his environment the attitude of the adolescent to the school and to education will likely be different from the attitudes of the adolescent who is embedded in an environment where his own and the teachers' expectations are disparate. The central problem of this study is based on theorizing about possible relationships between levels of teacher and student expectations about achievement and student attitudes.

In the school, the roles which incumbents perform are defined in terms of certain normative obligations and responsibilities. The individual who enters the school as a teacher is "expected" to teach, to exhibit behaviors normatively associated with the teacher's role. The teacher is "expected" to keep order, to direct student learning, to

evaluate student progress, and in essence to exemplify those behavior patterns traditionally assigned to the teacher. The young person who is a student in a high school is "expected" to have learned the behaviors characteristic of his role; he is "expected" to attend classes, to exhibit "acceptable" behavior, and to achieve.

In earlier, simpler societies, little disagreement appeared to exist between adolescents and adults in their expectations of adolescent behavior (Benedict, 1934; Mead, 1961). In complex, advanced societies, the process whereby each individual has, or feels he has, a voice in his own destiny has rendered clearly defined roles less easily attainable. The socializing process, too, with its lessened emphases on ritualistic ceremonies which mark the emergence of the young into adulthood, has assisted in blurring the adolescent's role. The lack of role definition of the adolescent may result in widely differing expectations of the adolescent's behavior. If these differences are related to attitudinal developments in the young, the importance of exploring differences in expectation becomes obvious.

Differences in expectations are premised on the assumption that value differences exist between generations. Value differences exist on a number of levels, from deep-rooted, traditional values to more transitional, emergent values. Some of these value differences may result from technological changes. The introduction of improved contraceptive methods, for example, has probably been accompanied by changes in sexual values and morality. Improvement in domestic utensils and devices produce an environment where attitudes of adults and adolescents towards domesticity may differ. Technological changes in communication have produced a radically different environment for the adolescent compared to the self-instructional environment in which most teachers reached maturity. These brief illustrations

point to value differences which have developed between generations and to some of the changed social conditions which may be related to those differences and to attitudes which students develop.

At least in part, student attitudes are affected by, or developed under, conditions found in educational institutions. The concept "student attitudes" is assumed to parallel the concept "adult attitudes" in that they are both hypothetical constructs or latent variables not directly observable. There is, however, a consistency of responses to specified social objects and from these consistent responses an individual's attitude may be inferred. Generally, attitudes are considered to have a high degree of permanency. Probably, however, high school students' attitudes are more susceptible to change because of the relationship between attitudes and frames of reference which, in turn, are determined by previous experience. Studies reported by Newcomb (1950, pp. 236-239) have shown that frames of reference and attitudes change more readily in high school students than in adults. It appears reasonable, therefore, to assume that determiners of student roles -- the expectations of alter groups -- will influence attitudes which students have or which they are developing.

Within the educational institution, then, students may develop or modify attitudes towards many aspects of their environment. Three attitudes in particular -- attitudes towards future education, towards associates, and towards work -- are important in the current context. In some parts of the Western world, today's adolescent lives in a meritocracy where social advancement is related positively to higher education. From an economic viewpoint the adolescent must delay gratification of his material needs to achieve this education. The length of the delay, in part, will depend upon his personal beliefs and the risks he is willing to take with respect to his future. The postponement of rewards will also

depend, in part, upon the relationships he establishes with his associates and the extent to which they may influence his decisions. The economic-psychological dilemma the student faces is related, then, to differing expectations others hold for him and to the relationship between these differing expectations and the attitudes which he develops.

Differences in student and teacher expectations about student achievement at school, either obliquely or directly opposed, affect the educational environment in which student attitudes may develop and change. One of the major concerns of this study was the formulation of a difference measure or "conflict index" so that the level of agreement between expectations of students and teachers could be quantified. A second concern was an attempt to establish relationships between the difference measure and the attitudes which students may have developed as a result of their interaction with other members of the school's social system.

II. A MODEL OF SOCIAL INTERACTION

A concept which has frequently been employed as the theoretical rationale for studies of differing expectations is Getzels' and Thelen's (1960, pp. 53-82) description of the school class as a social system. In an institutionalized setting, such as the school, individual behavior is a function of two major elements: the expectations held for the individual's role in the organization (the nomothetic dimension of behavior) and the personal need-disposition of the individual (the ideographic dimension of behavior) (Getzels, 1957, p. 156). The operation of these two major influences suggests the possibility of conflict: inner conflict between institutional demands and the personal needs and aspirations of the individual, and inter-personal conflict between incumbents occupying

roles in the social system. Interaction within a group, a class, or a school, leads to the development of a level of consensus in the system and the emergence of a group climate, which is the medium for the development of meaningful norms and attitudes for the individual and inter-personal relations within the group. Figure 1 depicts the mediational effect of the group between institutional and personality influences.

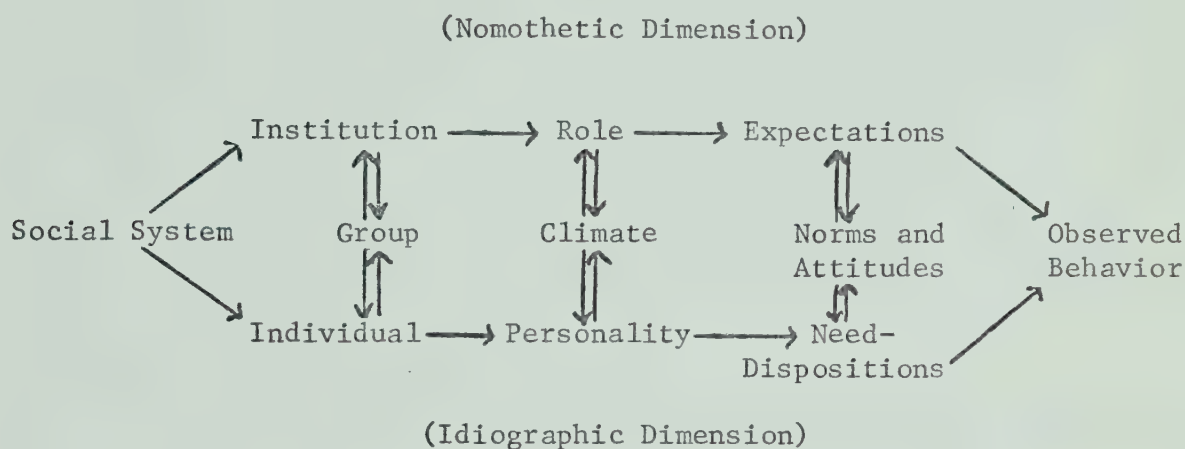


FIGURE 1.

The development of norms and attitudes as a result of the mediation of the group between the nomothetic and the idiographic dimensions of behavior (adapted from Getzels and Thelen, 1960, p. 80).

In the classroom the student gradually tends to identify with the goals of the system. These then tend to become part of his own needs and he begins to feel that the expectations held for him are rational if the goals are to be achieved. He develops a sense of belonging to the group, with similar identification, beliefs and attitudes, but unquestionably each student's perception of his role is affected by his needs. The degree to which consensus is reached will depend upon the extent to which individual attitudes persist. In addition to the persistence of

of these attitudes, the family and school situations will also affect the goal internalization process. Conversely, the degree of consensus which is reached by the group will affect the individual student's attitudes.

III. THE RESEARCH QUESTION

The general research question can be simply stated: does any relationship appear to exist between differences in student and teacher expectations for student achievement and the attitudes which students hold towards future education, their associates, and the world of work?

The brief discussion in the previous sections pointed to certain social and psychological strains and theoretical real-life concepts. Out of this discussion the following specific questions which directed the study were developed:

1. What are the differing expectations for student achievement in schools?
2. Are teacher expectations for student achievement related to such teacher characteristics as age, education, sex, total years of teaching experience, teaching experience in the present school, and length of residence in the community?
3. Are teacher expectations for student achievement related to such school characteristics as size and location?
4. Are student expectations for achievement related to such student characteristics as grade, sex, and social class?
5. Do student expectations for achievement relate to such school characteristics as size and location and do they differ among schools?
6. Is there a relationship between different expectations for student achievement and attitudes of high school students?
7. Are the differences in expectations for student achievement related to school factors such as size and location?

8. Is there a relationship between differences in expectations for student achievement and student attitudes towards education?
9. Is there a relationship between differences in expectations for student achievement and student attitudes towards family and friends?
10. Is there a relationship between differences in expectations for student achievement and student levels of occupational aspiration?
11. Is there a relationship between differences in expectations for student achievement and student attitudes towards selected aspects of the world of work?

IV. THESIS OVERVIEW

In this chapter, allusions have been made to the work of other researchers. In Chapter II, several of these studies will be reviewed in an attempt to indicate some of the attitudes adolescents hold. Chapter III contains reviews of additional material which is used in developing the conceptual framework for the study. The groundwork for the research is completed in Chapter IV where the methodology is described.

The data collected are presented in Chapters V and VI. In these two chapters, the results of the analysis are included as well as the conclusions which were reached as a result of the analysis.

The study concludes with Chapter VII which provides a summary of the study and draws attention to the implications of the results.

CHAPTER II

RELATED LITERATURE

The purposes of this chapter are twofold: (a) to review studies in the literature which are relevant to the questions raised in the previous chapter; and (b) to review studies pertinent to the development of instruments for data collection.

I. STUDENT ATTITUDES TOWARDS EDUCATION

Among the many facets of the school's social system, student beliefs and student values which have been investigated are the student's liking for school and the importance students attach to school athletics. There may be many related reasons why an adolescent continues to attend school after he has passed the school leaving age. These reasons may be similar to or different from the reasons a student perceives as influential in his attending school prior to attaining the legal school-leaving age. Parental influence, a genuine enjoyment in the intellectual challenge of the school, or social activities associated with the school may be among the reasons students advance for attending school. In addition to these reasons, one of the others most frequently advanced to explain why some students continue in school is the appeal which athletics have for many adolescents. These two related aspects of student attitudes towards education, then, have been selected for review in this section.

Differences in methodology are one of the major difficulties encountered when comparing American and Canadian studies. Differences in

sample size and selection as well as differences in the specific wording of questionnaire items are among the primary discrepancies. While the results of studies reported in the remainder of the chapter are given in exact figures or precise percentages, the generalizations made are based upon the trends identified.

Remmers and Radler (1957, p. 119) found that 80 per cent of the high school students in an American national sample liked school but that 50 per cent of the same group who liked school felt actual work experience would have been more valuable. Boyen (1959) obtained similar results: in a sample of 569 adolescents, 84 per cent were satisfied with school. In the sample Coleman (1961) studied, only 3.7 per cent of the respondents stated they would leave school if attendance were not compulsory.

The same results do not obtain in Canadian studies. In a study of Saskatchewan high school adolescents, Knill (1963) found only 12 per cent liked school very much and most students attended school for one or more of three reasons: to obtain a general education, to earn university entrance, or to train for a job. In Cathcart's (1967) Alberta sample, 12.5 per cent of the respondents stated they would withdraw from school if provided with the opportunity.

A question frequently investigated by students of high school social systems is the value assigned to athletics and the position of the athlete in the school. For example, Coleman (1961) focussed attention on the pre-emptive position of the athlete in the high school. He found that in all ten schools in his sample, in terms of popularity, the athlete ranked highest. Another researcher found that high school "big wheels" held

their positions primarily as a result of their athletic prowess (Gordon, 1957).

Friesen (1966), noted that high school students considered athletics very important. In his sample of eight Canadian schools, one-third of the girls and one-half of the boys ranked athletics as being important to them; however, when students were asked to rate the importance of athletics in life, only one-fifth of the boys and one girl in twenty attached a high rank to athletics. Friesen concluded that athletics have great immediate importance in high school but almost all students recognize the transitory nature of this value. Cathcart's (1967) findings support Friesen's conclusion. More students want to be remembered as an outstanding student rather than as a leader in student activities or athletics.

To summarize the studies reported in this section, Canadian high school students can be said to appear to hold different attitudes towards education and the place of athletics in the school's social system from those held by their American counterparts. Greater emphasis on academic achievement and reduced emphasis on athletics seem to be attitudes ingrained in the Canadian high school student.

II. STUDENT ATTITUDES TOWARDS THEIR ASSOCIATES

The studies selected for presentation in this section highlight parental influence and inter-generational conflict; the review is focussed on these two aspects of adolescent-adult relationships. More specifically the research review will attempt to provide answers to these questions: Do Canadian and American adolescents have different value systems? Do the social systems of the adult and adolescent exert conflicting

influences on the high school student? Many student attitudes are influenced by, among others, the mass media and the advertising industry. Music, art, dress, and entertainment, for example, may achieve popularity as a result of skilful promotion with the adolescent crowd. Parents may attempt to exert little influence on their children's choice of popular heroes and culture. Whether or not the attempt is made is not the issue here. Rather the research focusses on the adolescent's orientation towards his associates with particular emphasis on family relationships and the influences of the school's social system.

Rosen (1955) found that most adolescents perceived their parents as "significant others," and Weltman (Remmers and Weltman, 1953) noted a strong positive relationship among members of the same family in typical attitudes measured. If children have adopted parents' attitudes, then parents must be a significant other for the child. Remmers and Radler, (1957, Chap. 7) using a national sample of American youth, found fifty-four per cent of the teenagers considered the opinions of parents and of other adults more important than the opinions of their peers. Taba (1953) found the loyalty of sixteen-year-olds to their adolescent friends was not strong and was usually subordinated to other values.

Mead (1953) accounted for variations in student choices by differentiated parental behavior. The mother is the principal disciplining and character-molding agent and must provide love, comfort and care for the child but must also simultaneously goad him to achievement outside the home. The father provides a steady, although not very aggressive, support of the child's individuality and his push toward maturity. If the mother is the principal administrator of discipline,

adolescents may identify more with the father as a significant other.

A different view of the adolescent's orientation is presented by Smith (1962, Chap. 1). He believes, as he stated in his structured analysis of the youth culture, that because of the inevitability of separation of children and parents, adolescents will establish particularized norms within the adolescent subculture, and will rigidly conform to these group norms. Parents, then, are not significant others because behavior and attitudes are patterned after adolescent significant others. Two-thirds of Coleman's (1961) respondents indicated they would not join a club against parental disapproval. Coleman argues that the elites and exemplars, or the adolescent's significant others, owe their allegiance to the school. Elites were less oriented to parental demands because they were less influenced by parents and more by the school's social system. These adolescents will, therefore, exercise control over the values and norms of their peers. Significant others may be more oriented to the school but this factor does not necessarily provide them with more influence over other adolescents' attitudes compared with the amount of influence parents may exert. In view of the information collected in other studies, parental influence upon adolescents cannot be lightly dismissed.

Douvan and Adelson (1966) found that forty-five percent of fourteen to sixteen year old boys and fifty-five per cent of fourteen to sixteen year old girls selected in-family models. They also noted a striking increase in the percentage of girls, from early to late adolescence, who desired a closer relationship with their parents. The two writers do not believe adolescents become completely oriented to, and controlled by, the values and norms of the adolescent society. In his bid for

autonomy from family jurisdiction, the student, as he approaches the terminal point of his high school education, begins to withdraw from the family. The process appears to be more of a negative orientation to the family than a positive attachment to the adolescent society.

Canadian researchers report findings congruent with Douvan and Adelson's observations. Knill (1963) found seventy per cent of the respondents selected either father or mother as the significant other with respect to influencing their high school careers. In providing respondents with a choice involving parental disapproval, breaking with a friend, or teachers' disapproval, sixty per cent of the students indicated parental disapproval was the most threatening result (Cathcart, 1967, p. 54). Friesen (1966, pp. 37- 38) found replies to the same question were about equally divided between choice of parental disapproval and breaking with a friend. However, about two-thirds of the respondents indicated that parents had been most influential in their lives.

Most writers believe conflict between parents and children, between adults and adolescents is inevitable but there appears to be little consensus about the relative importance of the conflict. Davis (1953) advances two reasons for the conflict: (1) the adolescent is always in a subordinate position; and (2) cultural differences develop between generations. Riesman believes it is a step towards independency:

Thus it would appear . . . that the adolescent may go through a stage in which he is becoming independent of his parents by what seems like overdependence on his peers--a stage of other direction and role diffusion: when he in turn becomes an adult he will be more independent of peers, with values closer to inner-direction (Riesman and Glazer, 1961, p. 429).

Parsons (1959) stated that the dependency-independency problem is a salient one which develops bifurcated orientation. Adolescents vacillate between accepting the teacher and the peer group member as a model. Coleman (1961, pp. 285-288) believes teachers do not serve as models because of lack of sympathy between student and adults. Furthermore, a lack of communication between adults and adolescents thrusts the teenager towards identification with peer groups. Ullman (1960) agrees with Coleman that adolescent behavior is monitored by the adolescent social system where the sanctions are controlled by his peers. Ullman stated, however, that the adolescent social system develops because of the adolescent's isolation, not because of lack of constraints by parents.

Smith perceived effective and continuous conflict between parent and offspring:

. . . the overall effect is so impressive that many analysts assert that youth-parent conflict in America is typical and even structurally necessary in consequence of the existence of youth culture (Smith, 1962, p. 18).

He analyzed parent-youth, the inter-generational conflict in a number of areas -- status, roles, ideologies, and authority. In the main, he found inter-generational conflict was the result of serious social discontinuities. Discontinuities were the result of the biological birth cycle, vertical mobility, and rapid social change which force the child to turn from parents to the peer group (Smith, 1962, pp. 18-25).

The difficulty, as Merrill (1950, Chap. 12) perceived it, is not caused as much by cultural discontinuities as by complex societal configurations. Parents cannot perceive properly their role expectations;

consequently frustration and conflict with their children result.

Gottlieb and Ramsay (1964, pp. 94-111) stated that conflict is part of the cultural and social milieu of society. They hypothesize that the breaking of family ties by the young adult inevitably is the result of conflict and the conflict is compounded by ambiguity about norms and roles. These writers use the concept of "dual ambivalence" to describe the source of parent-offspring conflict.

Douvan and Adelson (1966) provide a reasoned and balanced view of intergenerational conflict. They do not believe anyone can question the shift in valence from family to friends and the peer culture but they stress the variability and subtlety of the process:

We think most writers have overplayed both the potency of peer group norms and the amount of discrepancy between parental and peer standards. For most adolescents there is, appearances aside, no great dissonance between what parents and friends believe. We say "appearances aside" because we sometimes observe a great hue and cry of conflict between a child and his parents over "values" and "norms" which are in fact trivial (Douvan and Adelson, 1966, p. 81).

Cathcart (1967) using the Differential Values Inventory, concluded that students and teachers were not dissimilar in their value orientations. He also concluded that teachers are unimportant in influencing certain value patterns of students.

The peer group is a powerful element in high school society but it is not in opposition to the culture of the larger society. Rather, according to Friesen (1966), it is the product of the adult society. He found peer influence was strongest where the immediate goals of the adolescent were concerned and where desires could receive immediate gratification. In the long run, parents and other adults appear to exert significant and lasting affect on high school students. Even though conflicts appear, more similarities than differences exist be-

tween adult and adolescent values (Friesen, 1966, pp. 45, 46, 115, 116).

Two salient inferences may be made from these reports. First, American and Canadian adolescents appear to differ in their orientation towards their family and the extent to which the adolescent subculture influences their lives. Some American writers believe that almost complete control of the adolescent value system is held by adolescents while other writers state that discrepancies between adult and adolescent values are overemphasized. Canadian writers seem to find adolescents more conservative and more susceptible to adult direction. Second, two social systems operate side by side in the school. The teacher becomes "a stranger in a strange land" when he invades the adolescent social system. Students accept the aims and objectives of the adult social system except where theirs and the adults' are in direct conflict. At this point the student's loyalty may be to his group norms. Student response to cheating situations is an illustration of such loyalty. Or the adolescent may adhere to the norms of the adult group when, as Friesen notes, long term effects are important.

III. STUDENT ATTITUDES TO THE WORLD OF WORK

Occupational Aspiration

A general theory of occupational choice propounded by Ginzberg (1951) and his associates in 1951 provides a significant influence on the theorizing of other writers (Caplow, 1954; Rosenberg, 1957; Slocum, 1966). Occupational choice develops into a meaningful pattern as a result of decisions made over an eight to ten year period. The process, which is largely irreversible, has three phases--fantasy, tentative, realistic. The last period occurs when the compromise between the

individual's aspirations and job availability takes place. The tentative phase covers the high school years with the realistic period commencing near the end of high school.

Super (1957, pp. 170-171) also hypothesizes a consistent choice pattern so, as a result of the adolescent exploratory period, a meaningful aspiration pattern develops. His theory of life patterns is very similar to Ginzberg's theory of occupational choice but he utilizes the thematic extrapolative method to assess the aspirational levels of youths.

A number of studies have shown the existence of relationships between aspirational levels and individual characteristics. Among these are social class, sex, and degree of urbanization. The finding that social class is differentially related to occupational aspiration has resulted from a number of studies (Rogoff, 1953; Rosenberg, 1957; Youmans, 1954; Thomas, 1956). The occupational aspirations of adolescents substantially reflect their fathers' positions in the social structure. Thomas found about two-thirds of the young have occupational aspiration levels only slightly higher than the parents' occupational levels. Youmans found the value orientation of sub-cultures of the social strata were more important in formulating youths' work interests than were school, work experience, types of community, and certain home factors.

The findings of Siemens (1965) are perhaps more applicable to this study for comparative purposes. Siemens determined levels of occupational aspiration for 1844 Manitoba high school students from scores obtained on the Haller and Miller Occupational Aspiration Scale. Socioeconomic classes were compiled from scores on the Sewell Scale--a

scale similar to the Gough Home Index Scale. Chi square values for boys and girls computed for social class and aspiration level were significant at the 0.01 level. Students from high social class homes had high occupational aspiration levels. In addition, Siemens tested the father's occupational level against the Occupational Aspiration Scale scores with the resulting chi square values significant at the 0.01 level. Students with fathers in the professional or managerial groups had higher aspirations than students whose fathers were in the laboring or technical groups.

Ginzberg (1951) found the choice process of girls appeared to parallel boys' choices but Rosenberg (1957, pp. 50-54) reported that in almost every aspect of occupational values and choices, men and women tend to differ radically. Women are more person-oriented while men are extrinsic or reward-oriented; women rarely consider their careers the main probable source of life satisfaction. Stephenson (1955) states that females are more realistic than males in their choice of occupational level. A directly opposite view is presented by Douvan and Adelson (1966, p. 37) who say, "Girls are less realistic than boys in their plan for job preparation." Because of differences in sex roles, boys and girls have different goals and consequently their aspirational levels differ considerably. The differences between sexes are cogently expressed:

To summarize, boys orient to the future primarily in terms of an occupational identity. They plan concretely for the future, and their plans are marked by an active striving for achievement and by a relatively realistic assessment of the job world and their own capabilities. They show concern about work and achievement in their realistic expectations, and also in more general and fantasy-like preoccupations (Douvan and Adelson, 1967, p. 33).

We cannot fail to be impressed with the consistency that

marks girls' views. They want to attain middle-class jobs for themselves, they want their husbands to have high status jobs, and they have a personal image of the future husband which conforms to the requirements of these same occupations (Douvan and Adelson, 1967, p. 44).

Another factor which appears to influence occupational aspiration is community location. Gottlieb and Ramsay (1954, p. 77) found urban youths had higher aspiration levels than had rural youths. Siemens (1965, p. 59) in his study of occupation aspirations, divided respondents into four groups according to community type: farm, communities with less than 500 persons, communities with between 501 and 2500 persons, and communities with over 2500 persons. Using the chi square test, he found differences among communities significant at the 0.01 level. He did not report differentiation among schools of varying sizes.

Job Satisfaction and Work Rewards

Job satisfaction and work rewards are frequently not clearly differentiated in the literature. For the purpose of this discussion, the distinction is not important and so the two are combined.

Katz (1953) suggests the amount of reward or satisfaction is directly related to the individual's expectations. Intrinsic job satisfaction depends on two main factors: interesting work with some variety and a congenial primary work group. Beyond these, there are other operant factors: satisfaction from membership in a large social system, the rewards a worker receives in wages and prestige, and relationships with the supervisor. Watson and Seidman (1953) found the job, congenial working conditions, an opportunity to display initiative and accept responsibility, variety, and opportunities for promotion were rank

ordered by young adult, unemployed workers as the sources of satisfaction. The amount of money earned was the least important factor.

Carter (1962, Chap. 5) in a study of English secondary modern school students found respondents had given little consideration to rewards of employment and satisfaction found in work. The majority wanted a "reasonable" pay, that is, enough money to provide new clothes and entertainment, and to allow them to travel. One-third thought positive satisfaction from work was the result of interest in the job. One-fifth of the boys thought future prospects were important; these students also stressed need for security and some opportunity to accept responsibility. Girls were more concerned with service to the community and nice people to work with; security did not greatly concern them. To many students, a good job meant an undemanding occupation involving no health risk and no sacrifice of holiday benefits.

While Thomas (1956, pp. 209-215) agrees with Katz that satisfaction depends upon congruency of employment and aspirational levels, his analysis of job satisfaction revolves around three factors. The first of these is economic which is comprised of income, security, and opportunities for advancement. The second factor is the interpersonal relationships which are made of such elements as the consideration group members have for one another and the leadership style of superordinates. The third is work satisfaction which is similar to intrinsic job satisfaction including work variety, independence from supervision, and opportunity for self-expression. By applying Maslow's principle of prepotency, Thomas theorizes that if basic security is achieved, dissatisfactions may result from lack of opportunity for

self-expression, lack of variety, undesirable primary work group interaction, and close supervision.

The striving for security, as the first step towards self-fulfilment, appears in the results of other studies. Douvan and Adelson (1967, p. 29) reported the majority of boys in their sample chose job security as most important in selecting an occupation. Knill (1963, pp. 55-56) reported that one-quarter of the high school students in his study selected satisfaction as the most important job attribute but a larger percentage chose a sense of accomplishment and doing something worthwhile as important rewards.

Related to the question of success, and indirectly to satisfaction, is the characteristics which are important to achieve success. Friesen (1966, p. 78) asked students to rank the characteristics they considered most important for success in life. The characteristics ranked were money, athletics, personality, academic achievement, friendliness, and good looks. Slightly over one-half of the boys (55.4 per cent) and almost three-quarters of the girls (71.4 per cent) ranked personality first with academic achievement and friendliness ranked second and third. Cathcart (1967, p. 71) replicated Friesen's question but did not differentiate between the sexes in reporting the results. Personality was ranked first by the majority of students (67.1 per cent) with academic achievement (19.7 per cent) and friendliness (14.6 per cent) being ranked second and third.

Questionnaire items in a study reported by Knill (1963, pp. 54-55) attempted to elicit student attitudes towards success and the attributes necessary to achieve it. More security, career advancement, greater opportunity to help others and greater income were the success criteria

in that order. To achieve success the respondents ranked in order: hard work, pleasant personality, brains, and knowing the right people.

These related studies tend to show Canadian high school students have similar perceptions of success and similar attitudes about the personal characteristics necessary to achieve these goals. Studies conducted in the United States and Britain also tend to show the adolescent's striving for security and the necessity of his achieving a degree of self-fulfilment or self-actualization.

IV. ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Achievement motivation as an area of study has concerned students of many disciplines. The economist and psychiatrist, among others, have indicated more than a perfunctory interest in achievement motivation. Weber, the German economist and sociologist, believed the Protestant Reformation produced men with vigor and spirit which ultimately resulted in the development of modern industrial capitalism. Men with new character and the resulting rationalization of conduct meant ". . . more than orderliness and rigidity, it meant continually trying to improve oneself, to achieve" (McClelland, 1961, p. 47). While Weber may imply the rationality of achievement motivation, Freud, in his analyses of human motives, destroyed the notion that these well-springs of human action are rational or can be rationally inferred from action (McClelland, 1961, p. 49).

In addition to economists and psychiatrists, achievement motivation continues to be of vital concern to the teacher. The generally accepted view of the classroom is that its purpose is to provide a learning situation where the child is expected to work diligently in order to achieve his fullest potential (Getzels and Thelen, 1960). Jenson (1960) reflects

that nothing has been of greater concern to teachers than students' motivation and their participation in the instructional group.

Some factors inhibit the development of the achievement motive while others facilitate its development. Finger (1966) suggests that low academic motivation is the result of a number of ego defenses which protect the student against low performance and thus make possible the maintenance of an individual's self-esteem in the face of school failure.

Brodie (1964) found students who were "satisfied" with school generally out-performed students "dissatisfied" with school. Another factor which appears to affect student motivation is his relationship to his peer group. The acceptance of the group's goals tends to increase the individual's motivation (Horowitz, 1963; Morse, 1960). The effects of adult influence, however, appear to be minimal (Buxton, 1967).

A student's achievement motivation is also affected by family relationships. High achieving, highly motivated children tend to have mothers who are more authoritarian and restrictive than mothers of low achievers (Drews and Teahan, 1963). A similar pattern of family characteristics was evident to Weiner (1967). Mothers of high achievement boys had high aspiration levels; they rewarded their children when they achieved highly but showed displeasure when results were poor. Conversely, fathers of low achieving boys were dominant and interfering.

Students who have high achievement motivation exhibit distinctive characteristics. They have greater ability to delay gratification of their needs and they react positively to failure by repeatedly attempting to solve the problem until success is achieved. Highly motivated students also exhibit differential preference for tasks with different levels of difficulty. These students select tasks of intermediate difficulty, where the probability of success is greater but not assured (Weiner, 1967).

Students with high achievement motivation also appear to be better organized in their approach to a learning task. They make fewer errors and score higher on retention tests (Kight and Sassenrath, 1966).

Student sex also appears to be related to achievement orientation. White and Aaron (1967) found females possessed a higher achievement motivation than males.

While the evidence concerning the sources of achievement motivation may not present the clear, concise view one might hope to find, considerable knowledge has been gained about achievement motivation and its relationship to child-rearing practices, performance in the classroom, and characteristics of students. One area which has received little attention is differing achievement expectations of adults and adolescents. Experiential evidence points to the area of scholastic achievement as one of the sources of conflict in the school situation.

Another cause of conflict is the differential concern with academic achievement by the various social classes. The upwardly mobile middle class student sees high academic achievement as the vehicle to satisfy his material and social desires. The lower class student sees academic success as unrealistic in terms of his short term goal of providing for immediate needs. If the teaching staff is the communicator of middle class values -- and there appears to be some consensus about this assumption -- and if the student population is representative of the lower class strata, conflict appears inevitable.

One of the goals of the school, as a formal institution, is the achievement of scholastic excellence by its clientele. Therefore, in addition to teacher expectations, there are the proclaimed objectives

of the institution. The lower-class pupil may view the school as an institution legally preventing him from achieving occupational status as soon as he wishes and thus, from his viewpoint, the school may be an inhibitor of his achievement motivation and his occupational aspirations (Green and Stachnik, 1968).

Strong (1963, pp. 26-27) has summarized research studies investigating problems of identifying the achievement motive. Underlying assumptions about the achievement motive are: that it is probably learned, that it has its origins in repeated experiences, and that it becomes a relatively stable characteristic of the personality.

Rosen (1956), building on previous studies, isolated a cluster of value orientations related to achievement. Value orientations are the principles in the culture which guide human behavior by defining and implementing goals valued by the group. Three areas of life especially relevant in Western industrialized society are defined in terms of the dominant value orientations of the group members. First, there is the activistic-passivistic value orientation. An activistic-oriented individual is confident he can mold the environment to achieve what he desires. Passivistic-orientation fosters a feeling of futility and suggests the fate of the individual is determined by outside forces. The second dominant value orientation is the present-future emphasis. Present-oriented individuals enjoy pleasures of the moment and refuse to accept planning and sacrificing as necessary for self-gratification. Future-oriented groups place moral obligations on the individual to work hard and give up immediate pleasure for future goals. Individualistic-familistic value orientation is the third focal point of the value cluster. Individualistic-oriented groups place a high premium on the individual's

freedom of action and his independence. Familistic-oriented groups require individuals to maintain close physical and affectionate ties with the family. From this cluster of value orientations springs the expectations which individuals hold for themselves and others about achievement. Furthermore, in an atmosphere where academic achievement is stressed, expectations about scholastic excellence will also spring from this cluster of value orientations.

V. CONCLUDING STATEMENT

It follows from the above section that a measure of the achievement motive or orientation provides a measure of the individual's expectations about academic achievement. For individuals who possess high expectations about academic achievement, there should be little disagreement about the goal of the school and the emphasis placed on the desirability of academic success. Individuals whose expectations about academic achievement differ widely will not likely attach the same measure of importance to the achievement of academic excellence. Incongruent expectations among the staff members may inhibit the identification of task priorities and promote tension and conflict among individuals and groups. Incongruent expectations among the students may facilitate fragmentation of student opinion and erode the school's morale, thus leading to factionalism and dispute. And if students and teachers have differing expectations about academic achievement, the resulting conflict between the two groups could be placed on a latent-manifest continuum. Where differences in expectations are not great, conflict will likely be apparent and will be, therefore, at the latent end of the continuum. Conversely, if expectations of academic achievement are opposed, the resulting conflict could hardly avoid being manifested within the school.

CHAPTER III

A CONCEPTUAL RATIONALE

In the preceding chapter, the research reviewed was concerned with the adolescent and his attitudes towards the school and his future education, his family and peers, and his future employment. In addition, studies analyzing the achievement motive were reported. Flowing from these descriptions and analyses, the proposition was advanced that one source of inter-generational conflict would be incongruent achievement expectations of adolescents and adults. In this chapter the relevant psychological theories of adolescence, together with the pertinent sociological concepts about adolescence, will be reviewed. Commonalities will be established from which a typology of conflict, either overt or latent, will be identified. The possible types of conflict which might exist in the adolescent's life will be briefly examined and one type will be selected as a hypothetical construct for this study.

I. PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORIES

G. Stanley Hall (Muuss, 1962, pp. 13-20) was among the first to advance a psychology of adolescence. He saw adolescence, the stage between puberty and adulthood, characterized by "storm and stress," and a period full of idealism and revolution against the old with expressions of personal feeling, passion and suffering. Anna Freud (Muuss, 1962, pp. 21-30) developed a theory based on the concept that the physiological process of sex maturation influences directly the psychological realm. The delicate balance between the id and the ego is disturbed and this results in internal conflict. The central problem of the adolescent, then,

is the attempt to regain internal equilibrium. Erikson (1950) theorized that the problem of adolescence is the acquisition of an ego identity. The adolescent over-identifies with popular figures and rebels against the family's intrusion into his private life, the family's authority, and the family's value system. He relies on his peers to stereotype himself. If he is successful, he achieves a positive ego identity; if not, his ego is diffused.

Gesell, a developmental psychologist, like Erikson, sees adolescence as the crucial transitional stage between childhood and adulthood where the central task of the individual is to find himself. To explain the gradual maturation of the adolescent's developmental stage, Gesell applied his concept of growth gradients¹ to the adolescent's developmental stage because he believes the process is primarily a ripening one. He does concede, however, that certain fluctuations and oscillations will occur, a point which many psychologists stress (Muuss, 1962, pp.116-121).

A general theory to account for particular types of behavior was propounded by Dollard (1959, Chap. 5). His basic assumption is that aggression is always a consequence of frustration. For the youth, aggression may be displaced or circumvented or it may also take surreptitious forms to enable the individual to achieve a feeling of independence. The central point is that the predominant behavior of adolescents is aggression against frustrating forces or the amelioration of aggression by substitute responses.

¹Gesell stated that the concept of growth gradient is a theoretical construct which explains the growth processes and gradual development which takes place from childhood to adulthood. However, downward, as well as upward, gradient is an important and necessary part of development because it allows the organism to consolidate sequential patterns so it can move to higher forms of achievement.

Kurt Lewin, a social psychologist, used the construct of "life space" to explain and describe the dynamics of the individual adolescent operating within the group. In adolescence there is a relatively rapid change in the life space structure. It has ". . . different regions which are separated by boundaries with varying degrees of permeability" (Muuss, 1962, p. 88). The adolescent does not know directions in his rapidly changing field or whether his behavior will lead him toward, or away from, his goal. Barker (Muuss, 1962, pp. 84-100) contends that because the "perceptual structure is unstable," the psychological dynamics resulting from new or unknown situations are unstable and vacillating. The adolescent places greater dependence on small and conflicting cues as the situation becomes less stable. Uniformity of behavior among adolescents is an attempt to structure situations in order that individuals feel more stable and secure.

From the foregoing discussion, the identification of common elements found in the theories make possible the prediction of some behavior patterns of the adolescent:

- (1) the adolescent may attempt to free himself from family constraints by identifying with peer models and adopting peer group norms;
- (2) the adolescent's behavior may become highly regimented as he attempts to conform to group norms in order to overcome the psychological imbalance produced by rapid physical changes;
- (3) the adolescent may react aggressively in an attempt to achieve independence in situations where he becomes frustrated;
- (4) the adolescent may experience continuous conflict which causes increased emotional tension because of the marginality of his role;
- (5) the adolescent may take extreme positions and change behavior drastically.

II. SOCIOLOGICAL CONCEPTS OF ADOLESCENCE

While psychological theories focus on the behavior of individuals qua individuals, sociological theories attempt to describe and explain the interaction of individuals within the groups and institutions of society.

Hollingshead (1949), in his classic study of the American high school teenager, hypothesized that social behavior of adolescents was functionally related to the position which their families occupied in the social structure of the community. The data collected supported his hypotheses in every phase of adolescent social behavior he tested. There is a general denial of the class system in America; yet it pervades every aspect of high school life affecting such elements as student leaders, occupational prospects, dating habits, and clique formations. The evidence supporting Hollingshead's hypotheses points to sources of tension and conflict for the high school youth.

In The Adolescent Society, Coleman (1961) hypothesized that today's adolescents depend more on their peer group than on their parents for social rewards. He found the American high school subculture had created its own value system and high school had become a ". . . cruel jungle of rating and dating" (Coleman, 1961, p. 51). Coleman (1961) postulates that the strains imposed by the demands for academic achievement are far less than the strain imposed by social competition.

Smith (1962), whose results support the Coleman thesis, found the only contact between the adolescent subculture and the adult culture was in the conflict between parents and offspring. Smith hypothesized further that conflict is most noticeable where there is a distinctive organization of the adolescent subculture and where discontinuities exist in the

socializing institutions. The more distinctive the adolescent subculture becomes, the more the young withdraw from institutions sponsored and controlled by adults.

Another view was proposed by Friedenberg (1959) who found that the adolescent's need to define himself cannot be realized by many young people today. The adolescent is a victim of hostile social forces and many youths fail to find an identity or to establish a value framework. Thus there is a collapse of identity rather than ego identification and the adolescent becomes a "good guy." He is the "mass-man" or the "organizational adolescent." "Adolescent conflict is the instrument by which the individual learns the subtle, complex and precious difference between himself and his environment." (p. 13). Of concern to Friedenberg is the absence of the type of conflict he considers proper and necessary, the type of abrasive conflict found in the British public schools which forces students to adopt and defend moral positions, a process which is vital for self-definition.

Summary. Psychological theories appear to stress the transitional nature of the adolescent period, a period marked by anxiety, frustration, and conflict. In his search for independence, the adolescent is alienated from the family institution. In an effort to overcome marginality and instability, he seeks the anonymity and uniformity of the peer group. Most sociological theories emphasize the existence of an adolescent subculture. Many of these sociological theories hypothesize that contact between the adult culture and the adolescent subculture are areas of conflict. Coser (1956) argues that conflict helps to identify and consolidate the group. Thus, the conflict of cultures provides a coalescing force for the teenage peer group.

Adolescence, then, is a period of transition, of unease, and of conflict in which the individual should achieve a sense of identity. The common denominator of both psychological and sociological theories and concepts is conflict.

III. DEVELOPING A TYPOLOGY OF CONFLICT

If conflict is the focal point of the adolescent period, then it may be used as a basis for analyzing the psychological and sociological aspects of this period of life. Conflict results from the youth's attempt to discover his role in adult society; some individuals assume the new role easily while many have difficulty in meeting the expectations which define their new role. In attempting to find his place during the transitional stage, the youth may be subject to one, two, or three types of conflict.

The first type of conflict is within the individual -- internal conflict. Body changes and maturing sexual impulses provide uncertain perception of conflicting cues as the individual attempts to achieve a stable orientation. The second type of conflict takes place within the group. The struggle for status positions in the adolescent hierarchy, differing perceptions of the adolescent's role, opposing values held by various segments of the group, and differentiation of sex roles may, individually and collectively, produce conflict within the peer group. The third type of conflict occurs between the adolescent subculture and the adult culture. The revolt against authority, both legal and institutional, the "conspiracy of silence" about sexual relationships, and evidence of irresponsibility are examples of conflict dimensions generated by inadequate definition of youth roles.

The areas of conflict represented in diagrammatic form in Figure 2 were suggested by Ruth Benedict's (1953) categories. Sex, status, responsibility, and achievement appear to be four dimensions on which most conflicts are generated.

Sex. Manifestations of sex certainly appear to be strongly associated with conflict. The arrival of puberty stimulates dreams, fantasies, anxieties, and tension within the individual. Uncertainty of action and emotion as the result of body changes appears to be one of the greatest conflicts found in Cell 1, Figure 2. Within the adolescent group, conflict results from competition, exploration, deception, jealousy, and some of the dysfunctional aspects of courting and dating. This conflict, intra-group conflict, is the Type II variety, and is found in Cell 2. The sex

	Dimensions of Conflict			
Conflict Type	Sex	Status	Responsibility	Achievement
Type I (Individual)	1	4	7	10
Type II (Intra-Group)	2	5	8	11
Type III (Inter-Group)	3	6	9	12

FIGURE 2.

Dimensions and Types of Conflict in the Adolescent's Role

(Adapted from Seeman, 1960, p. 41).

taboos of the adult culture generate conflict between the adolescent and the adult. This conflict is Type III, intra-group, and the sex dimension is found in Cell 3.

Status. The status of youth, depending to a large degree upon the socio-economic status of the family, provides a conflict source. Rejection and frustration caused by the individual's failure to overcome barriers imposed by status demands of the group and the young's social systems generate the type of conflict found in Cell 4. Most noteworthy, on this dimension, is the conflict resulting from the controlling influence of status within the group. Hollingshead pointed out the difficulty, in the school situation, of students from lower-status homes being accepted by students from higher-status homes who influenced the social, athletic, and even the scholastic participation of the student body (Hollingshead, 1949, pp. 163-242). Where the group can control the reward system and demand adherence to its norms, intra-group conflict is prone to develop. This Type II conflict, on the status dimension, is encompassed by Cell 5. Conflict in Cell 6, inter-group conflict, would develop from the adolescent's desire for status which the family might not be able or willing to confer. The expenditure of family funds for the material symbols of status might be limited and not meet the demands of the teenager. Conversely, conflict might be engendered by parental desires to increase their status, thus effecting a negative reaction from their children.

Responsibility. Most adults urge the assumption of responsibility on adolescents but many of them do not appear ready to relinquish the authority which is a necessary correlate of responsibility. Internal conflict may be caused by the assumption of responsibility and the

attendant pressures and tensions of decision-making. Failure to achieve position of authority, either in the school's social system or outside of it, may cause similar internal conflicts. These Type I conflicts, on the responsibility dimension, are encompassed in Cell 7, Figure 2. Challenges for the leadership position in the peer group or strivings to establish certain members in positions of leadership and authority would produce the intra-group, Type II, conflict found in Cell 8. However, most of the conflict on this dimension would probably be concentrated in Cell 9. The attempt by the adult to retain as many vestiges of authority as possible and the struggle of the youth to claim some authority for himself will result in conflict. School constitutions which make a pretense of giving authority to students are certainly the cause of many bitter conflicts in the high school. Roles of adults and adolescents on the authority dimension are not clearly defined in our society which may account for the existence of conflict.

Achievement. Much of the conflict over the role of the student in the school centers on achievement. Conflict may not be limited to the school and may exist in other institutions of society. On-the-job performance, if the student works, and proper completion of home tasks are examples of conflict-inducing situations in institutions other than the school.

Ethnic groups have differing achievement orientation, as shown in the Strong (1963, pp. 123-125) study. In addition, the formal expectations enunciated by the heads of institutions and informal expectations of individuals in these institutions may not be congruent. Each of these variances in expectations increases the complexity of the situation for the adolescent and intensifies the difficulty of accurate role perception.

If the adolescent has high self-expectations, failure to meet these expectations will produce the internal stress and tension characteristic of Type I conflict. On the achievement dimension, Type I conflict will be in Cell 10. Type II or intra-group conflict will develop if some group members refuse to adhere to the achievement norms set by the group. The "average raisers" in the school are analogous to the "rate busters" in the factory. The conflict envisaged in Cell 11, Figure 2, will result from disagreement among the adolescent members of the school about the amount of effort required of each student. Most of the conflict in Cell 12 will be generated by differing expectations of teachers, parents and students. Students who are loathe to accept the academic objectives of the school are in constant conflict with the adult members of the institution. The emphasis placed by society on academic excellence will induce conflict between the adults who demand excellence and the students who fail to meet the standards set by the school.

Summary. The development of a typology of conflict, based on current psychological and sociological knowledge, hypothesizes the existence of three broad categories of conflict: within the individual, within the group, and between groups. Conflict of any one of the three types may develop along any number of dimensions. In the social system of the school, conflict between faculty and students on the achievement dimension appears inevitable. However, the mediational effects of the group will affect the degree of consensus achieved and the extent of the conflict will vary from school to school. A related effect of the differences in consensus will be the differential development of student behavior norms and attitudes.

IV. SUMMARY

The review of the literature in Chapter II has shown that in relation to the questions posed in Chapter I, the following tentative generalizations emerge:

i) Adolescents in some Canadian high schools place great value on the academic aspects of school life and assign little long term emphasis to the social and athletic phases of school life.

ii) Adolescents in some Canadian high schools use their parents as primary reference figures in making decisions about school attendance and program choice. Adolescents are loyal to group norms and values in instances where the adult culture and adolescent sub-culture are in direct conflict.

iii) In their choice pattern of occupations and careers, adolescents attempt to choose positions which give them the opportunity for security and self-development. The principal characteristics perceived for achieving success are hard work and a pleasant personality.

iv) Achievement motivation in school students is related to such factors as "satisfaction" with the school, ego defense against failure, family relationships, sex of the student, and ability to delay gratification of needs.

v) Psychological and sociological theories of adolescence place varying degrees of importance upon conflict as a part of the adolescent period. At one end of the continuum some theoreticians believe conflict is inevitable and all-embracing; at the other end of the continuum, some writers, particularly developmental psychologists, view adolescence as a stage in the maturation process but even they concede that stress and tension are an inevitable adjunct of this period of life.

The review has also demonstrated that in exploring this particular field of human behavior, certain methodologies have been used. Expectations of achievement, springing from the achievement orientation, are based on the individual's activistic-passivistic, individualistic-familistic, present-future orientations. A measure of these orientations provides a means of quantifying achievement expectations. The other principal methodological technique employed by the researchers whose reports were reviewed has been the development of questionnaire items which provide an indication of an individual's attitudes towards certain relevant aspects of his environment.

The research, then, was based upon the conceptual view that interaction among students and teachers within the school's social system would develop a climate which might have been responsible, in part, for the development of, or changes in, students' attitudes. A further conceptualization indicated that differences in expectations might generate conflict within an individual, among group members, or between groups. While these differences might develop in many aspects of life, academic achievement appears to be the dimension most pertinent to the high school. If the differences can be quantified, and if some indication of student attitudes can be obtained, the possibility of establishing relationships between the two exists.

The research questions, asked in Chapter I, are now restated in more precise terms to form the hypotheses which were tested in the study:

- 1.0. Teacher expectations for achievement are related to the teacher characteristics of age, education, sex, total years of teaching experience, teaching experience in the present school, and length of residence in the community.

- 1.1. Teacher expectations for academic achievement are related to the school characteristics of size and location.
- 1.2. Student expectations for academic achievement are related to the student characteristics of grade, sex and social class.
- 1.3. Student expectations for academic achievement are related to the school characteristics of size and location.
- 2.0. The conflict index is related to the school factors of size and location.
- 2.1. Relationships exist between the conflict index and student attitudes towards education.
- 2.2. Relationships exist between the conflict index and student attitudes towards family and friends.
- 2.3. Relationships exist between the conflict index and student levels of occupational aspiration.
- 2.4. Relationships exist between the conflict index and student attitudes towards selected aspects of the world of work.

In the following chapters, the procedures for collecting and analyzing the data used in the attempt to resolve the questions raised by these hypotheses will be described.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was the attempt to establish relationships between differences in expectations for academic achievement by students and teachers in a particular school and student attitudes in that school. In this chapter the procedures which were developed to test the hypotheses raised by the problem are described.

I. DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Research Rationale

In the previous chapter the conceptual framework conceived suggests that conflict may exist between the subculture of the adolescent and the broader culture of the adult. If conflict generally exists between adults and adolescents, then conflict should exist between discrete groups of adolescents and adults. If differences in achievement expectations can be shown to exist between high school students and teachers, and if the attitudes of high school students vary with the amount of the difference, this demonstrated relationship will lend support to the thesis that conflict between adults and adolescents affects adolescent attitudes. Therefore, to test the hypotheses with a limited group, students and teachers in ten selected Manitoba high schools comprised the group from which the data for the study were collected.

The collection of data was dependent upon the employment of instruments developed by other researchers. These instruments, in questionnaire form, dictated the survey approach and, in addition, demanded a large number of respondents to insure adequate representation in each important category.

Selection of Respondents

The selection of respondent schools was based on the researcher's knowledge of Manitoba schools and the restrictions imposed by the research questions raised in Chapter I. To provide the desired range in size and degree of urbanization, schools were selected from the rural sections of the province where schools are invariably small, and from the metropolitan area where most high schools are classified as large. (In Manitoba, a school with a student population of 350 to 400 or greater is classified, by most educators and laymen, as a large school.) A second restriction imposed by the research questions was to select schools from communities of different sizes. Another restriction was to select schools representative of various socioeconomic levels and the final restriction was to obtain schools from communities which had relatively stable populations as well as schools from communities with mobile populations.

Four of the schools selected were small schools located in four towns which were the centers of stable agricultural communities. In one of these four schools, however, almost one-half of the school population was composed of students whose families lived on a nearby military base. Many students in these schools were transported from their homes in the towns' hinterlands. Two small schools were situated in a small city which serves primarily as the distribution center for the western section of the province. In all these schools, student respondents were representative of a cross-section of the socioeconomic levels of the community.

The four other schools were large schools (in Manitoba terms) in the metropolitan area. One school was located in a high income level

section of the city while the other three schools were established in suburbs adjacent to the large city. The suburban areas were essentially "bedroom" communities although one suburb did contain some light industrial manufacturing plants as well as a large warehousing district.

Definitions

The following operational definitions were utilized in the study:

Attitudes. An individual's attitude toward something is his pre-disposition to perform, think, perceive, or feel in relation to that thing. Considered in this study were students' attitudes toward: their future education, their associates, and the world of work.

Adolescent. An individual in the thirteen to nineteen year age range who was not wholly economically self-supporting and who was attending high school was considered an adolescent.

Level of Occupational Aspiration. This concept is based on the differential occupational prestige by which occupations are arranged in a hierarchy. A person's propensity towards the occupational hierarchy indicates his occupational goal and, hence, his level of occupational aspiration.

Political Efficacy. Political efficacy is the extent to which individuals feel that political action does have, or can have, an impact upon the political process. The student who feels it is worthwhile being involved in student council activity may be considered to be high in political efficacy.

Reference Groups. A group whose set of norms influences the individual may, for him, be considered a reference group. Reference groups, in this study, are parents, teachers, and adolescents.

Expectations. Expectations, as perceived by an individual, assist

in defining his behavior in time and space. Teachers assist in defining student behavior by the expectations they communicate to students while, concomitantly, students define, in part, their own behavior by the expectations they hold of themselves. Expectations measure in this study concerned scholastic achievement.

Conflict Index. In school, students and teachers may hold differing expectations about academic achievement. The differences between teacher expectations and student expectations, in a particular school, constituted the conflict index for the school.

Student Characteristics. An individual's personal qualities were viewed as his characteristics. Student characteristics considered were: age, academic ability, religious affiliation, social class, grade, and length of residence in the community.

Assumptions

Use of the questionnaires was based on the following assumptions:

- a) that students and teachers responded to the statements or questions without bias;
- b) that students and teachers recorded accurate biographical information;
- c) that sufficient assurance was given students respecting anonymity that teacher administration of the questionnaires did not inhibit student responses;
- d) that an individual's achievement orientation score was indicative of the individual's expectation for academic achievement.

Limitation

This study is limited to students and teachers in ten selected high schools in Manitoba who were present at the time the questionnaires were administered and for whom certain information was available from the Manitoba Department of Education. Generalizations made in the study apply only to those teachers and students.

II. THE QUESTIONNAIRES

In constructing the questionnaires, several factors were kept in mind: the length of time required to respond to the questionnaire, item clarity, and internal sub-groupings of items to minimize the chances of distracting the respondents. Three questionnaires were constructed: one for teachers, one for boys, and one for girls. (Copies of the three questionnaires are included in the Appendix).

The Teacher's Questionnaire included items to obtain biographic and demographic information about each respondent. The other items in the questionnaire, the Achievement Orientation Test items, were designed to obtain a measure of the teacher's achievement expectations.

Except for the items used for compiling a quantitative measure of occupational aspiration, the Boy's and Girl's Questionnaires were identical. In each, items were included to obtain necessary biographical and demographical data. The other items in the questionnaires were either scales or tests previously tested and reported or sets of items or vignettes which had appeared in previous research questionnaires (Coleman, 1961; Knill, no date). Each scale which was incorporated into the questionnaires is reviewed below and the strengths and weaknesses of each discussed.

Achievement Orientation Test

To measure the achievement expectations, Strong's (1963, p. 66) adaptation of Rosen's Achievement Orientation Test was used. The instrument, which has been widely reported in the American literature, was based initially on the formulation of Florence Kluckhohn but it has been refined and further developed by Strodbeck and Rosen. The items cluster around three dominant value orientations: activist-passivist;

present-future; and individualistic-familistic. The three items deleted by Strong clustered around the individualistic-familistic value orientation. Strong found the test placed scores on a continuum so dichotomization presented little difficulty.

The Achievement Orientation Test was incorporated into both student and teacher questionnaires. Differences between teacher and student respondent mean scores, for each school, provided a conflict index for the school. The information provided by other items in the questionnaires was analyzed in an attempt to establish relationships between the conflict indices and student attitudes.

Scores on the Achievement Orientation Test could, theoretically, range from "+ 11" for respondents who answered "Agree" to statements 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 9 and 10 and who answered "Disagree" to statements 4, 8 and 11 to "- 11" for respondents who circled "Disagree" for statements 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 9 and 10 and who circled "Agree" for statements 4, 8 and 11.

Political Efficacy Scale

The scale was used by Campbell (1954) to measure the citizen's belief that it is worthwhile to perform one's civic duties. The items were used in an analytical study of the 1952 presidential election in the United States. On the original items, a scale analysis resulted in a coefficient of reproducibility or .923 on five items. Such a coefficient meets the criterion of 90 per cent reproducibility suggested by Guttman. The items in the student questionnaires are those modified by Knill (no date). Using the first four items of the scale, Benoit (1967) obtained a coefficient of reproducibility of 92.5 per cent.

For the same questions, using the scalogram analysis technique, MacLeod's (1966) coefficient of reproducibility was 92.8 per cent. Studies by Benoit (1967) and Hemphill and Holdaway (1967) show the items have a high loading on a single factor. Benoit (1967, p. 53) found a significant correlation between items when they were factor analyzed and Guttman scaled for the same respondents.

Responses to items on this scale were factor analyzed and an inter-correlation matrix computed to assess relationships between relevant variables.

Level of Occupational Aspiration Scale

Haller's Level of Occupational Aspiration Scale (Haller and Miller, 1963) was reproduced in the Boy's Questionnaire, with slight modification in the wording of four of the eighty items to make the questionnaire applicable to the Canadian scene. To modify the questionnaire the following changes were made: "United States representative in Congress" was replaced by "a member of the House of Commons;" "United States Supreme Court Justice" was replaced by "Supreme Court Justice;" and "diplomat in the United States Foreign Service" was replaced by "diplomat in the Canadian Foreign Service".

The original scale had a split-level reliability coefficient of $r = .80$ and a test-retest reliability of $r = .77$ when equivalent forms were administered ten weeks apart (Haller and Miller, 1963, pp. 72-3). It has been evaluated for measuring levels of occupational aspiration of older boys but the authors claim its "inappropriateness for high school girls has not been demonstrated."

The difficulty of having girls respond to the Haller Occupational

Aspiration Scale is that certain categories are likely to be closed to them by the nature of the occupation, i.e., night watchman, banker, railroad engineer, coal miner, etc. For the categories which limit female participation, occupations carrying similar social class ratings, but in which employment is usually limited to females, were selected from the Blishen Occupational Scale (Blishen, 1958). In all sixty-two substitutions, out of a total of eighty items, were made for the girls' version of the scale. Such a method of constructing an occupational aspiration scale for girls should maintain the internal consistency and high reliability level which had been attributed to the original scale.

A weakness of this instrument may be in the assumption that Canadian and American high school students have similar occupational aspirations. Blishen (1958), however, claimed that rank correlation of ratings of occupational prestige in Canada and the United States was .94, thus the scale may be assumed to have acceptable reliability when Canadian respondents are utilized.

Scoring of the items in the Occupational Aspiration Scale is described in the manual (Haller and Miller, 1963, pp. 113-114).

Social Class Scale

To rank students according to their social class, their father's occupation was classified on the basis of Blishen's Occupational Class Scale (Blishen, 1958). For occupations not listed on the scale, equivalent occupations were selected and their ranks assigned to the respondents. Seven occupational classes comprise the scale and, with the exception of unemployed and retired heads of families, all the res-

pondents' fathers were categorized.

The questionnaires were pretested with a grade ten urban class of twenty-eight pupils and a grade eleven rural class of thirty-two pupils. Following final modifications, the questionnaires were printed on distinctive colored paper to differentiate, particularly, between boy's and girl's questionnaires.

III. COLLECTING THE DATA

Prior to undertaking the data collection, letters were written to the superintendent, or, if none was employed, to the school principal. Permission was obtained for the researcher to visit the schools and to supervise the administration of the questionnaires. Two large city schools were included in the sample and the superintendent and principals agreed to allow staff members and students to act as respondents. Due to difficulties encountered with the administrative staff of one of these schools, however, it became necessary to substitute another school. In selecting another school, it was not possible to duplicate exactly the type of school originally chosen. The principal of a school similar in size and locale, with exception of being located in a suburb rather than the city, agreed to make a sample of his student body available as respondents. A sample of seven classes was therefore selected at random -- three Grade X classes, two Grade XI classes, and two Grade XII classes -- as representative of the twenty-three classes in the school. Students in these seven classes, together with the teaching staff, completed questionnaires.

In January and February, 1964, the researcher visited each of the ten schools. Meetings were held with the teaching staffs to acquaint

them with the purpose of the study and the procedures to be followed in administering the questionnaires to their classes. At this time, too, respondents completed the Teacher's Questionnaire. In some schools it was possible to speak to the student body, either at a morning assembly or via the public address system, and to solicit their cooperation.

After all schools had been visited and the questionnaires had been completed, Grade IX academic achievement and ability scores, if available, were obtained from the Department of Education records. In Grade IX, each student in the Province wrote a Department of Education examination in the four core subjects -- English, mathematics, social studies, and science. The answer papers were graded by a central marking committee. Each year, Grade IX students also wrote a group test of mental ability and an I.Q. score was computed for each student. On the basis of these scores, comparisons among students of any given year were possible. Comparisons could not be made between or among students in different grades because of differences in the examination results (the Grade IX marks were not scaled) and because different mental ability tests were employed each year.¹ Scores from the Department of Education records were obtained for students who had written the Department

¹The mental ability tests used by the Department of Education in 1961, 1962, and 1963 were:

- 1961 - Dominion Test: Group Test of Learning Capacity, Form "A" Advanced-Grade X to Adult.
- 1962 - Dominion Test: Quick Scoring Group Test of Learning Capacity, Form "B" Advanced - Grade X to Adult.
- 1963 - Henmon-Nelson Test of Mental Ability - Revised Edition, Form "A" Grades 9 - 12.

The information cited above is contained in private correspondence from A.C. Heaney, Supervisor of Research and Examinations for the Department of Education, Winnipeg, March 5, 1964.

of Education examinations in one of the three years prior to 1964.

Thus, students who had achieved normal progress and who were in Grade XII in 1964 had written the Department of Education examinations in June, 1961. Similarly, Grade XI students' scores were obtained from the June, 1962 results and Grade X from the June, 1963 results.

IV. CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

Student Respondents

Student populations from ten selected high schools, with the exception of absentees and those who did not complete the questionnaire or for whom I.Q. and achievement scores were not available from the Department of Education, supplied the basic information for the study.² The distribution of respondents by schools is reported in Table I.

Schools A to F were, as previously described, small schools while the remaining four were large schools. Schools A, B, C and D were rural schools. Schools E and F were located in a small city; schools G to J were situated in either the metropolitan city or its suburbs. School I was the school from which a sample of seven classes was selected at random. The total enrolment for this school was 573 and 172 students, in the seven classes, completed the questionnaire.

²The absenteeism for each school was not recorded on the day when the questionnaires were completed. The usual percentage attendance in most Manitoba high schools was between 90 and 95 per cent.

Most students who were in attendance on the day when the researcher visited the school answered the questionnaires. Fewer than one per cent supplied insufficient information and their questionnaires were discarded.

For most students in small schools, I.Q. and achievement scores were available. Scores could not be obtained for a number of students, particularly the Grade XII students, in the large schools. In total the number for whom scores were not available was less than 15 per cent.

TABLE I

DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENT RESPONDENTS BY GRADE AND SEX IN TEN
SELECTED MANITOBA HIGH SCHOOLS

Grades	Schools										
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	Total
X	Boys	37	37	36	25	30	160	152	40	89	635
	Girls	14	55	60	44	30	176	174	36	89	744
	Total	43	92	103	96	69	60	336	326	76	1379
XI	Boys	22	47	40	35	63	198	135	27	76	696
	Girls	18	49	27	29	59	140	104	11	53	520
	Total	40	96	67	64	122	83	338	239	38	1216
XII	Boys	17	25	25	24	41	134	71	42	54	459
	Girls	20	48	19	20	29	64	58	16	30	324
	Total	37	73	44	44	70	46	198	129	58	783
Total	Boys	68	109	102	95	129	492	358	109	210	1790
	Girls	52	152	112	109	132	80	336	63	172	1588
	Total	120	261	214	204	261	189	872	694	172	3378

The enrolment by grade and school program is reported in Table II. By far the greatest number of students, 2,680, was enrolled in the matriculation program or University Entrance Course. When the data were collected the Manitoba Department of Education had recently inaugurated the General Course, a second level academic program. Readily apparent is the fact that the number of respondents enrolled in the General Course program is substantially higher in Grade X than in Grade XI. This might indicate that the attempt to change choice of programs was becoming effective.

Sample of Student Respondents

Complete populations of all schools, with exceptions of absentees, constituted the basic population for the study. For the purpose of analysis, a twenty-five per cent random sample of the respondents' completed questionnaires was selected. Thus, with one exception, approximately one respondent in four in each school who completed the questionnaire comprised the sample. The exception is School I where, because of difficulties encountered in administering the questionnaire to students, seven classes were selected at random at the time the data were collected. In place of selecting twenty-five per cent of the seven classes, a sufficient number of questionnaires were selected to achieve a twenty-five per cent sample of the students enrolled in the school. Therefore, the sample of 142 student respondent questionnaires selected at random from the 172 completed questionnaires is approximately one-quarter of the 573 students enrolled at the school in January, 1964.

TABLE II

DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENT RESPONDENTS BY GRADE AND SCHOOL PROGRAM

Program	Grade			Total
	X	XI	XII	
Matriculation	990	999	691	2680
General Course	211	112	16	339
Commercial	134	56	50	240
School Leaving	25	33	21	79
Not yet decided	11	14	5	30
No answer	8	2	0	10
Total	1379	1216	783	3378

With the exception of School I, then, the sample distribution approximates the distribution for the total number of respondents. Comparisons between the proportional distributions of all students who completed the questionnaire and the approximate twenty-five per cent sample whose questionnaires were analyzed can be made by referring to Tables III and IV.

Teacher Respondents

One hundred and seventy-seven teachers completed the Teacher's Questionnaire (see Appendix). In some schools, teachers of such subject matter areas as home economics and physical education did not attend meetings where the questionnaires were completed. Because of schedules, some other teachers did not participate in the study.

TABLE III

PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS IN TEN SELECTED MANITOBA
HIGH SCHOOLS
(N = 3,378)

Schools												
		A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	Total
Grade X	Boys	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.1	0.7	0.9	4.7	4.5	1.2	2.6	18.8
	Girls	0.4	1.6	2.0	1.8	1.3	0.9	5.2	5.2	1.1	2.6	22.0
	Total	1.3	2.7	3.1	2.9	2.0	1.8	9.9	9.7	2.3	5.2	40.8
Grade XI	Boys	0.7	1.4	1.2	1.0	1.9	1.6	5.9	4.0	0.8	2.2	20.6
	Girls	0.5	1.5	0.8	0.9	1.7	0.9	4.1	3.1	0.3	1.6	15.4
	Total	1.2	2.9	2.0	1.9	3.6	2.5	10.0	7.1	1.1	3.8	36.0
Grade XII	Boys	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.2	0.8	4.0	2.1	1.2	1.6	13.6
	Girls	0.6	1.4	0.6	0.6	0.9	0.6	1.9	1.7	0.5	0.9	9.6
	Total	1.1	2.1	1.3	1.3	2.1	1.4	5.9	3.8	1.7	2.5	23.2
Total	Boys	2.1	3.2	3.0	2.8	3.8	3.3	14.6	10.6	3.2	6.4	53.0
	Girls	1.5	4.5	3.4	3.3	3.9	2.4	11.2	10.0	1.9	5.1	47.0
	Total	3.6	7.7	6.4	6.1	7.7	5.7	25.8	20.6	5.1	11.5	100.0

TABLE IV
PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS IN TWENTY-FIVE PER CENT SAMPLE
(N = 952)

		Schools										Total
		A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	
Grade X	Boys	0.8	1.1	1.2	1.2	0.5	0.7	4.7	3.7	3.8	2.4	19.6
	Girls	0.2	1.6	1.2	1.8	1.4	0.9	5.8	6.1	2.9	2.8	24.7
	Total	1.0	2.7	2.4	3.0	1.9	1.6	10.5	9.8	6.7	5.2	44.3
Grade XI	Boys	0.4	0.8	0.8	0.6	1.5	1.4	5.4	3.0	2.4	2.4	19.3
	Girls	0.6	1.2	0.8	0.9	1.5	0.8	4.1	2.9	1.2	1.3	15.4
	Total	1.0	2.0	1.7	1.5	3.0	2.2	9.5	5.8	3.6	3.7	34.7
Grade XII	Boys	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.3	1.3	0.4	1.9	1.4	3.3	0.9	11.8
	Girls	0.4	1.3	0.8	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.6	1.2	1.4	0.6	9.2
	Total	1.1	2.1	1.5	0.8	1.9	1.2	3.5	2.6	4.7	1.5	21.0
Total	Boys	1.9	2.7	2.8	2.1	3.3	2.5	12.0	8.1	9.5	5.7	50.7
	Girls	1.2	4.1	2.8	3.2	3.5	2.5	11.5	10.2	5.5	4.7	49.3
	Total	3.1	6.8	5.6	5.3	6.8	5.0	23.5	18.3	15.0	10.4	100.0

The 177 teachers represent 87.0 per cent of the teachers who were teaching in the ten high schools when the data were collected.

The distribution of teacher respondents, by school and sex, is reported in Table V. Overall, male teachers out-number female teachers by almost a two to one ratio. With the exception of School A, however, the numbers of male and female teachers in rural schools are almost equal.

V. ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

To test for differences on the Achievement Orientation Test, among schools, social classes, and grades, and between large and small schools, rural and urban schools, and between boys' and girls' scores, a one-way analysis of variance was utilized. Where applicable, the Newman-Keuls test for comparison between ordered means was also used (Winer, 1962). To apply the test for differences according to school size, schools were categorized as large where the enrolment exceeded 400 students (Schools G to J). In 1964, fourteen schools in Metropolitan Winnipeg and one outside the metropolitan area had enrolments exceeding 400 (Department of Education, 1965). These schools were commonly referred to as large schools and this terminology was the basis for designating as "large" those schools whose enrolments were in excess of 400 students. The remaining schools (Schools A to F) were categorized as small. To test differences according to location, schools were categorized as rural (Schools A to D) or urban (Schools E to J). Schools E to J were located in either a small city, a large city, or in a suburb adjacent to the large city. Because of their location, these schools were categorized as urban. The remaining schools were located in towns where the total population ranged from approximately 1,800 to 3,200 persons. The towns were centers of

TABLE V
NUMBER OF TEACHER RESPONDENTS BY SCHOOL AND SEX

Teachers	Schools										Total
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	
Female	2	5	6	7	5	0	16	8	8	5	62
Male	6	7	8	6	12	10	21	20	14	11	115
Total	8	12	14	13	17	10	37	28	22	16	177

agricultural regions so town size and location were the bases for categorizing Schools A to D as rural.

The analysis carried out on teacher-generated data was the one-way analysis of variance. The differences between mean scores on the Achievement Orientation Test for male and female teacher respondents was tested for statistical significance. Similarly, differences between teacher respondents' scores in rural and urban schools and among teacher respondents in the ten schools were tested for significance. For the other variables -- age, education, total teaching experience, teaching experience in the present school, and length of residence in the district -- the mean for each variable was computed and scores dichotomized at the mean. For each of these groups, the mean score on the Achievement Orientation Test was computed. The differences between the means of the two groups were then tested for significance.

Relationships between the conflict index and items associated with student attitudes were tested by the chi square statistic. Chi square values were computed for questions which investigated student attitudes towards education, their associates, and the world of work.

In addition to the chi square, one-way analysis of variance and Newman-Keuls tests, a factor analytic study of the questionnaire was attempted and the resulting factor scores were correlated with student characteristics. A description of the method of procedure and the results are reported in Chapter VI, Section IV.

In the following chapter, the analysis of the Achievement Orientation Test scores will be described. This analysis formed the base for developing the conflict index.

CHAPTER V

THE ACHIEVEMENT ORIENTATION TEST AND

THE CONFLICT INDEX

Rosen's Achievement Orientation Test was the instrument used to measure teacher and student expectations for academic achievement. The resulting scores provided a measure of the difference between teacher and student expectations in a school. The analysis of the Achievement Orientation Test and compilation of the difference measure is described in this chapter.

I. THE ACHIEVEMENT ORIENTATION TEST

Teacher Scores

Means and standard deviations of teacher respondent scores on the Achievement Orientation Test are reported in Table VI. Mean scores range from a low of 6.16 in School E to a high of 7.85 in School H; the standard deviations range from 1.19 in School A to 2.28 in School D.

The results of the one-way analysis of variance for the independent variables is reported in Table VII. None of the F-values is statistically significant. The first hypothesis stated that relationships exist between expectation of achievement and teacher characteristics of age, university education, sex, total teaching experience, teaching experience in the present school, and length of residence in the community. On the basis of the analysis performed on the teacher respondent Achievement Orientation Test scores, the hypothesis is not acceptable. None of these factors appears to be related to teacher expectations of achievement. Similarly, the second hypothesis, that school size and school location are related to teacher expectations for achievement, must be rejected.

TABLE VI
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF TEACHER RESPONDENT SCORES
ON THE ACHIEVEMENT ORIENTATION TEST

	School										All Respondents
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	
Mean	6.75	6.33	6.43	7.15	6.16	7.40	7.38	7.85	6.63	6.87	7.01
S.D.	1.19	1.45	1.59	2.28	2.06	1.29	2.02	1.51	1.97	2.17	1.82

TABLE VII
SUMMARY OF F-VALUES FOR ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF
VARIANCE ON TEACHER ACHIEVEMENT
ORIENTATION TEST SCORES

Source of Variation	F-Value	Degrees of Freedom		Probability
		Between	Within	
Schools	1.98	9	167	0.09
School Size	2.72	1	175	0.10
School Location	2.51	1	175	0.12
Sex	0.46	1	175	0.39
Age	2.12	1	175	0.18
Education	0.47	1	175	0.37
Teaching Experience	0.46	1	175	0.39
Experience in Present School	2.16	1	175	0.20
Length of Residence in Community	1.34	1	175	0.28

Student Scores

Student respondent choices to the statements in the Achievement Orientation Test were scored using the procedure outlined at the beginning of the previous chapter (see *supra*, p. 45). A one-way analysis of variance applied to the data yielded the means and standard deviations reported in Table VIII and the F-values which are summarized in Table IX. The mean scores for individual schools range from a low of 4.58 in School C to a high of 5.77 in School H. The mean score for all student respondents was 5.23. The standard deviations range from a low of 2.21 for students in School D

TABLE VIII
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR STUDENT RESPONDENT SCORES
ON THE ACHIEVEMENT ORIENTATION TEST

	Schools										All Respondents
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	
Mean	5.27	4.78	4.58	4.80	5.00	5.00	5.42	5.77	5.25	4.90	5.23
S.D.	3.30	2.70	2.73	2.21	2.96	2.67	2.71	2.65	2.94	3.09	2.81

TABLE IX

SUMMARY OF F-VALUES FOR ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
ON STUDENT RESPONDENT ACHIEVEMENT
ORIENTATION TEST SCORES

Source of Variation	F-Value	Degrees of Freedom		Probability
		Between	Within	
School	1.69	9	942	0.08
Social Class	4.39	6	945	0.00
Sex	0.26	1	950	0.60
School Size	7.19	1	950	0.00
Grade	10.53	2	949	0.00
School Location	5.61	1	950	0.01

to a high of 3.30 for School A with the standard deviation for all student respondents equal to 2.81.

The summary of the F-values shows that two of the dependent variables, schools and sex, are not statistically significantly different. When the mean scores for student respondents were analyzed, no significant difference existed among the schools and no significant difference occurs between the mean scores for boys and girls. However, when student respondent mean scores were dichotomized by school size, large and small, the differences between the mean scores (large -- 5.40 and small -- 4.88) on the Achievement Orientation Test for the two groups differed significantly. Similarly with school location, the mean score (4.81) for rural students differed significantly

from the mean score for urban students (5.34). Grade level, with an F-value of 10.53, shows a significant difference among the students' mean scores (Grade X -- 5.04, Grade XI -- 5.00, Grade XII -- 6.03) for the three grades. And among the seven social classes, an F-value of 4.39 indicates significant differences among the mean scores for each social class.

The third hypothesis stated that relationships existed between achievement expectations and student characteristics. Expectations by students about achievement will vary significantly with the student's grade level and his social class. The fourth hypothesis directed attention to possible relationships between student expectations of achievement and the school factors of size and location. Student expectations may not differ significantly when all types and sizes of schools are grouped together but when students are classified according to school size or school location, their achievement expectations are significantly different.

Discussion

When the means on the Achievement Orientation Test are ordered from high to low (in Tables X and XI) it is readily apparent that male students had higher achievement expectations than females on this test. The same order for mean scores on the urban-rural and large-small school dimensions holds for student respondents. The same rank order would be anticipated for these two variables because the large schools were located in urban centers.

The mean scores for Grade XII student respondents is significantly higher than the mean scores for Grades X and XI students, Table XI, and this order would also be anticipated. Students with high achievement orientation would be motivated to continue their attendance at school

TABLE X
ORDERED MEANS OF STUDENT SCORES ON THE ACHIEVEMENT
ORIENTATION TEST

Variable	Ordered Means (High to Low)
Schools	H > G > A > I > F > E > J > D > B > C
Social	1 > 3 > 2 > 4 > 5 > 6 > 7
Sex	Male > Female
School Size	Large > Small
Grade	XII > X > XI
Location	Urban > Rural

TABLE XI
NEWMAN-KEULS COMPARISON BETWEEN ORDERED MEANS OF STUDENT SCORES
ON THE ACHIEVEMENT ORIENTATION TEST

Variable	Pairs of Means Significantly Different
Social Class	1 > 7, 1 > 6, 1 > 5, 3 > 7
School Size	Large Small
Grade	XII > X, XII > XI
Location	Urban > Rural

while students with low achievement orientation would tend to become drop-outs. Thus, because of this indirect selection process, students in Grade XII would be expected to have a higher mean score on the Achievement Orientation Test than students in Grades X and XI.

The ordering of means for the seven social classes follows, with one exception, the anticipated pattern. The mean score for student respondents in class three is higher than the mean score for class two. On this variable, significant differences occur between the extremes of the scale but not between adjacent social classes.

Achievement expectations, as measured by the Achievement Orientation Test, do not appear to be related to particular schools or to sex differences but they do appear to be a function of grade, school size, school location, and social class, in that order, according to the size of the F-values in Table IX. Grade XII students in large schools located in large cities and whose families are in a high social class have high achievement expectations. Grades X and XI students in small rural schools whose families are ranked low on the socioeconomic scale have low achievement expectations.

II. THE CONFLICT INDEX

The primary purpose for administering the Achievement Orientation Test was to discover the extent to which teachers' and students' expectations about achievement differed. One of the basic premises of the theoretical framework is that expectations of adults about performance of students on the academic tasks set by the school would be higher than students' expectations. As a result, conflict, based on a difference in expectations, would exist within the school. In schools where expectations

of students and teachers are greatly different, the difference measure would be more closely related to student attitudes than in schools where students and teachers hold similar expectations. In each school, differences between the teachers' and students' mean scores on the Achievement Orientation Test were used to derive a conflict index. Mean scores, for each school, on the Achievement Orientation Test, the resulting conflict index, and the ranking of the schools according to the index are reported in Table XII.

The conflict index varies from a high of 2.40 in School F to a low of 1.16 in School E. Prior to the analysis of the data it was anticipated that community homogeneity in rural areas would produce low conflict indices while the heterogeneity of school populations in large urban communities would produce large conflict indices. School size and location produced significant F-values in the differences between students' mean scores on the Achievement Orientation Test. Grade level and socioeconomic factors also produced significant F-values so that variation in the conflict indices may be the result of the combined effect of these four variables rather than the result of interaction between school size and location.

According to the indices, conflict about student role in achievement is greatest in Schools D, F, G, H, and J. One of the schools, D, is located in a small community in a rural area; one school, F, is situated in a small city; and three of the schools, G, H, and J, are located in a large city or adjacent to it. Two of these schools, D and F, have small enrolments; the remaining three schools, G, H, and J, have large enrolments.

TABLE XII

TEACHERS' AND STUDENTS' MEAN SCORES ON THE ACHIEVEMENT ORIENTATION TEST,
THE CONFLICT INDEX AND SCHOOL RANK ACCORDING TO INDEX

School	Teachers' Mean Score	Students' Mean Score	Index	Rank (High to Low)
F	7.40	5.00	2.40	1
D	7.15	4.80	2.35	2
H	7.85	5.77	2.08	3
J	6.87	4.90	1.97	4
G	7.38	5.42	1.96	5
C	6.37	4.58	1.79	6
B	6.33	4.78	1.55	7
A	6.75	5.27	1.48	8
I	6.63	5.25	1.38	9
E	6.16	5.00	1.16	10

The conflict indices are smallest in Schools A, B, C, E, and I.

Three of the schools, Schools A, B, and C, are situated in rural communities; one school, School E, is in a small city; and the remaining school, School I, is a suburban school. Four of the schools, A, B, C, and E, have small enrolments; one, I, has a large enrolment. Therefore, on the basis of the high-low dichotomization, the conflict indices cannot be attributed solely to school size and location differences and the fifth hypothesis cannot

be accepted.

From the theory developed, it was hypothesized that students in schools with a high conflict index would hold attitudes differing from those held by students in schools with a low conflict index. Using the conflict indices as the independent variable, students' attitudes towards education, associates, and the world of work will be analyzed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER VI

THE CONFLICT INDEX AND STUDENT ATTITUDES

I. ATTITUDES TOWARDS EDUCATION

Much of the adolescent's time, while he is enrolled in school, is spent either in the school itself or elsewhere in activities related to the school. Homework, extracurricular activities, and sponsored clubs are some of these activities.

What is the adolescent's view of the school? Does he attend school because of social or parental pressure, or is it because of the challenge of learning? How does he prefer to spend his time during the school day? Does he identify with the institution? Answers to questions concerning the adolescent's attitudes towards education will be sought in the first section of this chapter.

The ten schools were classified as either "high conflict index" or "low conflict index" depending upon the difference between the mean scores of teachers and students on the Achievement Orientation Test. Five of the schools (Schools F, J, H, D, and C) were assigned to the "high conflict index" category with mean differences from 2.40 to 1.96. The remaining schools (Schools G, A, B, I, and E) were assigned to the "low conflict index" category with mean differences from 1.79 to 1.16. (See Table XII, p. 68). Five hundred and twenty-six respondents were enrolled in schools in the "low index" category and 426 were enrolled in schools in the "high index" category.

Eight items in the Student's Questionnaire focussed on specific aspects of education. Respondents were to indicate: 1) the amount of time

they spent doing homework each day; 2) whether or not they would continue attending school if it were not compulsory; 3) how they might wish to employ an extra hour of school time if it were available; 4) their reasons for continuing to attend school; 5) their reasons for planning to attend university; and 6) identification with one of two students in each of the three vignettes. Replies to these questions may provide a general measure of student attitudes towards the school and education.

Homework

The distribution of the amount of time respondents spent doing homework outside school hours is reported in Table XIII.

The chi square value, for the distribution of responses, is 19.12. With seven degrees of freedom, this chi square value has a probability level of 0.008. The mean hours of time students in low conflict index schools reported is 1.62 compared to a mean of 1.48 hours for high conflict index schools, a difference of 0.14 hours. A pattern emerged in which students who attended low conflict schools stated that they attempted $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours or less of homework (57.4 per cent) as compared with proportionally more students (67.0 per cent) from high conflict index schools who stated they did $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours or less of homework each day. This pattern reverses at the level of 2 hours of homework per day, when 42.6 per cent of the students from low conflict index schools reported doing 2 hours or more of homework per day as opposed to 33.0 per cent of the students from high conflict index schools who reported attempting 2 hours or more of homework each day.

Regardless of whether the students of low conflict index schools actually spend more time on homework or not, they are responding in a

TABLE XIII

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES
AND AMOUNT OF TIME SPENT ON HOMEWORK

Amount of Time	Conflict Index					
	Low ^a		High ^b		Total ^c	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
None	7	1.3	10	2.3	17	1.8
Less than ½ hour a day	18	3.4	6	1.4	24	2.5
About ½ hour a day	39	7.4	54	12.7	93	9.8
About 1 hour a day	113	21.5	103	24.3	216	22.7
About 1½ hours a day	125	23.8	112	26.3	237	24.8
About 2 hours a day	157	29.8	96	22.5	253	26.6
About 3 hours a day	54	10.3	38	8.9	92	9.7
More than 3 hours a day	13	2.5	7	1.6	20	2.1
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 19.12, df = 7, p = 0.008$$

^a mean hours of homework, low conflict schools = 1.62

^b mean hours of homework, high conflict schools = 1.48

^c mean hours of homework, for all students = 1.56

socially acceptable manner which might tend to reduce the degree of conflict between themselves and their teachers.

School Attendance

Students were asked whether or not they would remain in school until they graduated if school were not compulsory and they were free to make

the decision. Respondents' decisions are reported in Table XIV. A large percentage of students, 83.6 per cent, stated they would continue to attend school although one student in eight did not know what decision he would make. Relatively more students in low conflict index schools (85.7 per cent) compared with students in high conflict index schools (81.0 per cent) stated they would remain in school until graduation. Fewer students, proportionally, in low conflict index schools, 11.3 per cent, as opposed to 14.5 per cent of the students in high conflict index schools did not know the decision they would make if given the choice.

The chi square value, for the distribution of the responses, of 3.97 with 2 degrees of freedom gives a probability level of 0.138.

Additional School Time

If the length of the school day were to be extended by one hour, how would students prefer to utilize the additional time? Respondents were asked to choose from among these items: take another school course, spend time on games or athletics, join a club, use the time for study, or do something else. These categories were chosen because of the usual student activities at school; the "do something else" category gave students the option of selecting another type of activity without having to identify the activity. The distribution of respondents' choices are reported in Table XV. Almost one-half of the respondents (48.5 per cent) reported they would utilize the additional time to take another course or to study. One-third (34.0 per cent) reported they would spend the additional time on athletics or games while one student in ten (9.5 per cent) indicated he would join a club. About the same proportion (8.0

TABLE XIV

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES AND
DECISION TO CONTINUE OR DISCONTINUE ATTENDING
SCHOOL IF IT WERE NOT COMPULSORY

Decision	Conflict Index					
	Low		High		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Stay in school until graduation	451	85.7	345	81.0	796	83.6
Leave school before graduation	16	3.0	19	4.5	35	3.7
Don't know	59	11.3	62	14.5	121	12.7
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 3.97, df = 2, p = 0.138$$

TABLE XV

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES AND DECISION OF
HOW TO SPEND AN EXTRA HOUR OF SCHOOL TIME IF IT WERE AVAILABLE

Decision	Conflict Index				Total	
	Low		High			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Spend time on games or athletics	198	37.6	126	29.6	324	34.0
Use time for study	162	30.8	140	32.9	302	31.7
Take another course	85	16.2	75	17.6	160	16.8
Join a club	45	8.6	45	10.6	90	9.5
Do something else	36	6.8	40	9.3	76	8.0
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 8.02, df = 4, p = 0.091$$

per cent) reported they wanted to do something else.

The chi square value of 8.02 with 4 degrees of freedom gives a probability level of 0.091.

Why Attend School?

As an additional indication of student attitudes toward the school, respondents were requested to select from among nine possible choices the reason why they continued to attend school. Choices given the respondents were: 1) I like school very much; 2) I want a general education; 3) I'm training for a job; 4) I need high school to get into university; 5) My parents insist I go to school; 6) All my friends are going to school; 7) I enjoy the sports activities; 8) I enjoy the social life; 9) I'm too young to go out and work. Respondents' choices in rank order of selection are reported in Table XVI.

The largest number of choices, 43.4 per cent, was assigned to high school education as a prerequisite for university entrance. One third of the respondents stated they were attending high school because by so doing they received a general education. Almost ten per cent, 9.3, indicated they liked school very much, while 8.9 per cent looked upon high school education as job training. Slightly over two per cent, 2.1, indicated they were attending school because of parental pressure and a slightly smaller percentage, 1.6, felt they were too young to work. Of the other three possible answers listed, sports activities, social life, and peer influence, each received less than one per cent of the choices.

The distribution of selections, between low and high conflict indices, has a chi square value of 18.31 which, with 8 degrees of freedom, has a probability level of 0.019. More students in low conflict index schools,

TABLE XVI

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES
AND REASONS FOR STAYING IN SCHOOL

Reasons	Conflict Index					
	Low		High		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
I need high school to get into university	242	46.0	171	40.1	413	43.4
I want a general education	160	30.4	159	37.3	319	33.5
I like school very much	60	11.4	29	6.8	89	9.3
I'm training for a job	42	8.0	42	9.9	84	8.9
My parents insist I go to school	12	2.3	8	1.8	20	2.1
I'm too young to go out and work	5	0.9	10	2.3	15	1.6
I enjoy the sports activities	4	0.8	3	0.8	7	0.7
All my friend are going to school	0	0.0	3	0.8	3	0.3
I enjoy the social life	1	0.2	1	0.2	2	0.2
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 18.31, df = 8, p = 0.019$$

on a proportional basis, look to the high school to provide them with university entrance or they stated they like school very much. In schools with a high conflict index relatively more students look upon high school education as either training for a job or as general education. Parental pressure is perceived by relatively more students in low conflict index schools as the reason for continuing to attend while

more students in high conflict index schools stated they were too young to work.

Students in low conflict index schools appeared to be more academically oriented, compared with students in high conflict index schools, when replies to the first four items in the question were analyzed. Fifty-seven per cent of the students in low conflict index schools indicated they needed high school for university or they liked school very much. In contrast, 46.9 per cent of students in high conflict index schools selected either of these two suggested responses. Students in high conflict index schools selected either of these two suggested responses. Students in high conflict index schools appeared to be more job-oriented, if wanting a general education is construed as preparation for a job or if it is considered providing the groundwork for a specific training course. Forty-seven per cent of the respondents in high conflict index schools, compared with 38.4 per cent in low conflict index schools, selected general education or job training.

University Education

If students plan to attend university, what facet of this type of education appeals to them? The 757 respondents who indicated they planned to attend university were presented with four alternatives and asked to select one. The stimulation of new ideas, preparation for making a living, campus activities and social life, or new friends to share interests were the options listed in the question. The distribution of responses is reported in Table XVII. If the aim of the school is to make students intellectually aware and if students adopt attitudes more readily in low conflict index schools, then in these schools students should regard univer-

TABLE XVII
RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES AND
REASONS GIVEN FOR PLANNING TO ATTEND UNIVERSITY

Reasons	Conflict Index				Total	
	Low		High			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Preparation for making a living	297	68.6	212	65.4	509	67.2
The stimulation of new ideas	116	26.8	102	31.4	218	28.8
New friends who share my interests	13	3.0	5	1.6	18	2.4
Campus activities and social life	7	1.6	5	1.6	12	1.6
Total	433	100.0	324	100.0	757	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 4.89, df = 3, p = 0.180$$

sity education as intellectually stimulating and not as vocational training.

The large proportion of students (67.2 per cent) who view university as an institution offering vocational training or job preparation is noteworthy. The traditional view of the university as an academic institution which purveys knowledge and emphasizes development of the intellect does not appear to have been reflected in the respondents' choices. The pragmatic approach adolescents appear to have towards high school education is reiterated in their view of education at the university level.

The chi square value for the relationships shown in Table XVII

is 4.89. With 3 degrees of freedom, the probability level of 0.180 is not statistically significant.

Vignette Identification

The remaining three questions in this section which explored student attitudes towards some aspects of education were in the form of a vignette or short episode. Each vignette described very briefly two students each of whom typified a particular orientation.

In each of the three vignettes, the two students typified particular and differing orientations. In the first vignette, two students represented differing views of the school:

Two students were talking about how they felt about the school they were attending. The first student said he usually felt a kind of pride in the school and he had a sense of personal responsibility for helping the teachers get their job done. The second student said he felt responsible chiefly for his own courses, that he left worrying about bigger problems to the people such as the principal and teachers whose job it was to worry about them.

The first student feels some commitment to the school and so he has been designated as "institution oriented." The second student feels he has little or no personal commitment to the institution but he is primarily concerned with his own welfare. He has been labelled as "self-oriented."

The two students, in the second episode, described their reactions to the expectations of other people:

Two students were discussing their reputations in the school. The first one said he thought it was important for a person to watch what he does in public and to associate with a respectable class of people. The second student said he didn't pay too much attention to what other people think of him, that he does what he wants to do and doesn't worry too much.

The first student apparently is perceptive of others' expectations and his behavior is influenced by these expectations. To use Riesman's

(1950) typology, he is "other-directed." The second student is more self-sufficient and his behavior seems to be directed more by the values he has internalized. He is "inner-directed."

The third vignette presented two students describing their attitudes towards work in school:

Two students were attending the same high school. Both felt they couldn't get along with their teachers and they both disliked school very much. Both of them were planning to quit school as soon as they could find suitable jobs. The first student said that since things were so bad he wasn't going out of his way to work hard, that he was going to do as little as possible. The second student said that he was continuing to work as hard as he usually did, that he felt he should do a full day's work.

The first student is inclined to "get by," to produce only the minimum effort and consequently he has been designated as "non-work oriented." The second student is motivated towards producing a reasonable effort and he has been labelled as "work oriented." Responses to the individual vignettes are reported in Tables XVIII, XIX, AND XX.

In the first vignette, 39.2 per cent of the respondents identified with the first student and 49.1 per cent identified with the second student. Almost twelve per cent, 11.7, found the decision impossible to make. In the description of the vignettes, the first student was labelled as "institution oriented" while the second student was "self-oriented." More students, proportionally, in low conflict index schools identified with the "self-oriented" student (50.0 per cent versus 48.1 per cent) while more students in high conflict index schools identified with the "institution oriented" student (40.4 per cent versus 38.2 per cent). The chi square value of 0.74 for the responses in Table XVIII, with 4 degrees of freedom, gives a probability of 0.946. In schools where the conflict index is low, students would be expected to identify with the institution while in schools where the conflict index is high, the an-

TABLE XVIII

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES AND
IDENTIFICATION WITH STUDENTS IN FIRST VIGNETTE

Identification	Conflict Index					
	Low		High		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very much like first student	33	6.3	26	6.1	59	6.2
Somewhat like first student	168	31.9	146	34.3	314	33.0
Somewhat like second student	225	42.8	178	41.8	403	42.3
Very much like second student	38	7.2	27	6.3	65	6.8
Impossible to decide	62	11.8	49	11.5	111	11.7
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 0.74, df = 4, p = 0.946$$

TABLE XIX

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES AND
IDENTIFICATION WITH STUDENTS IN SECOND VIGNETTE

Identification	Conflict Index					
	Low		High		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very much like first student	159	30.2	127	29.8	286	30.0
Somewhat like first student	203	38.6	179	42.0	382	40.1
Somewhat like second student	104	19.8	67	15.8	171	18.0
Very much like second student	35	6.5	33	7.7	68	7.1
Impossible to decide	25	4.9	20	4.7	45	4.8
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 3.24, df = 4, p = 0.518$$

TABLE XX

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES AND
IDENTIFICATION WITH STUDENTS IN THIRD VIGNETTE

Identification	Conflict Index				Total	
	Low		High			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very much like first student	15	2.9	10	2.3	25	2.6
Somewhat like first student	31	5.9	28	6.6	59	6.2
Somewhat like second student	196	37.2	169	39.7	365	38.3
Very much like second student	206	39.2	172	40.4	378	39.7
Impossible to decide	78	14.8	47	11.0	125	13.2
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 3.43, df = 4, p = 0.489$$

anticipated student choice would have been identification with self-oriented students. The responses to this vignette do not permit this inference.

For the second vignette, 70.1 per cent of the students identified with the first or "other-directed" student while 25.1 per cent identified with the second or "inner-directed" student. Fewer than five per cent (4.8) of the students did not identify with either student in the vignette. A chi square value of 3.24 for the response distribution with 4 degrees of freedom gives a non-significant probability level of 0.518. Students in high conflict index schools, according to the theoretical rationale, would be more susceptible to the goal orientation of their peers. Consequently, they would tend to be "other-directed."

Students in low conflict index schools would be expected to develop more self-direction and become "inner-directed."

Tabulation of the results of respondents' identification with students in the third vignette shows only 8.8 per cent identified with the first or "non-work oriented" student; 78.0 per cent identified with the second or "work oriented" student. More students, compared to student choices for the first and second vignette, found the decision impossible to make. The chi square value of 3.43 with 4 degrees of freedom gives a probability level of 0.489. From the theoretical rationale, the prediction would be that the orientation of students in low conflict index schools would be congruent with school goals. The inculcation of positive work values is surely a school goal and students in high conflict index schools would be expected to develop a non-congruent orientation.

Discussion

Student responses to a number of questions based on attitudes towards certain aspects of education have been reported in the foregoing paragraphs. In discussing the results, the data might be expected to provide answers to the question: to what extent is the theoretical framework of the study supported?

If school were not compulsory, only three students in a hundred would have left school before graduation. About one-eighth were indecisive about their course of action. When requested to give their reasons for continuing to attend school, however, about one student in ten indicated he liked school very much. Other reasons for continuing school, classified as non-academic, were selected by an extremely small percentage of the students.

The attractiveness of the school for the adolescent appears to stem from what the school can offer to enhance his future. High school students appear to accept adult values by placing great emphasis on the rewards education brings. Social life, athletics, and group cohesiveness may have important implications for the high school teenager but these factors are only of secondary importance in the total school milieu.

A question frequently investigated by students of the high school social system is the value assigned to athletics and the position of the athlete in the school. One-third of the students stated that, if given the choice, they would devote an additional hour of school time to athletics. When asked to give the reason why they were attending school, less than one per cent gave athletics as the reason. Although sports does have a place in the high school, students placed primary emphasis on the academic aspect of the school with athletics being of secondary consideration.

Summary

Support for the hypothesis based on the data presented is weak. A summary of chi square values and statistically significant relationships is presented in Table XXI. Two of the relationships are significant at the 0.05 level or higher. The strongest relationship exists between the conflict index and the amount of time spent on homework. A strong relationship exists between high and low conflict index schools and the reasons students give for continuing to attend school.

The sixth hypothesis dealt with the relationship between the conflict indices and student attitudes towards education. The evidence

TABLE XXI

SUMMARY OF CHI SQUARE VALUES FOR THE CONFLICT INDICES
AND STUDENT ATTITUDES TOWARDS EDUCATION

Dependent Variable	χ^2	df	P
Amount of homework	19.12	7	0.008**
Decision to continue attending school	3.97	2	0.138
Decision of how to spend an extra hour of school time	8.02	4	0.091
Reason for continuing school	18.31	8	0.019*
Reason for planning to attend university	4.89	3	0.180
Identification with students in first vignette	0.74	4	0.946
Identification with students in second vignette	3.24	4	0.518
Identification with students in third vignette	3.43	4	0.489

** significant at the 0.01 level

* significant at the 0.05 level

points to the existence of some relationship but the answer is not definitive.

II. THE ADOLESCENT'S ATTITUDES TOWARDS HIS ASSOCIATES

Ten items in the Student's Questionnaire provided the data for ascertaining student attitudes towards associates. The group most important to the individual, the person most influential in keeping

the respondent in school, the decision to join or not to join a club against parents' wishes, the decision to join or not to join a club if a friend could not join, the decision deemed most difficult to make, the estimated amount of cheating in the school, the decision of whether or not to report another student if he were cheating, cheating of respondents, attributes necessary for popularity, and identification with one of two students in a vignette were used as independent variables. For the analyses reported in this section, schools were again categorized as "low" or "high" on conflict indices and chi square values were computed to test significant relationships.

Reference Groups

Respondents were requested to indicate which group was most important to them and were given six alternatives: school friends, relatives (uncles, aunts, cousins), social clubs, work groups, church groups, and the immediate family. The choices are reported in Table XXII.

Four out of five students perceived the family as the group most important to them while 14.6 per cent stated their preference as the most important group was their school friends. Relatives, social clubs, work groups, and church groups are of less importance to high school student. Only 4.4 per cent indicated these groups were important to them.

The chi square value of 2.06 with 5 degrees of freedom gives a probability level of 0.841 which indicates the conflict index is not significantly related to the students' primary reference groups.

Significant Others

On the assumption that the decision to continue attending school was probably one of the most important decisions, implicit or explicit,

TABLE XXII
RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES AND
GROUP MOST IMPORTANT TO RESPONDENTS

Most Important Group	Conflict Index				Total	
	Low		High			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Immediate family (father, mother, brothers, sisters)	422	80.2	349	81.9	771	81.0
School friends	79	15.0	60	14.1	139	14.6
Church groups	11	2.1	6	1.4	17	1.8
Social clubs	7	1.3	6	1.4	13	1.4
Relatives (uncles, aunts, cousins)	5	1.0	2	0.5	7	0.7
Work groups	2	0.4	3	0.7	5	0.5
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 2.06, df = 5, p = 0.841$$

which respondents had made, they were asked to select individuals who had been most influential in making the decision. The question offered a number of alternatives: father; mother; sister; brother; teacher or principal; minister, priest or rabbi; boy friend or girl friend; aunt or uncle; some other person. Respondents' selections are reported in Table XXIII.

The most influential person to the respondents was perceived as either their father or mother. Choices reported in Table XXIII were consistent with the selections reported in the previous table. Almost nine of every ten students (88.4 per cent) selected their father or mother as the person most influential in keeping them in school. Some

TABLE XXIII

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES AND
PERSON MOST INFLUENTIAL IN KEEPING RESPONDENT IN SCHOOL

Most Influential Person	Conflict Index				Total	
	Low		High			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Father	351	66.7	260	61.0	611	64.2
Mother	122	23.3	108	25.4	230	24.2
Some other person	13	2.5	17	4.0	30	3.2
Boy friend or girl friend	14	2.7	15	3.5	29	3.0
Brother	14	2.7	12	2.8	26	2.7
Teacher or principal	7	1.3	6	1.4	13	1.4
Sister	4	0.8	5	1.2	9	0.9
Minister, priest, or rabbi	1	0.2	1	0.2	2	0.2
Aunt or uncle	0	0.0	2	0.5	2	0.2
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 6.89, df = 8, p = 0.549$$

other person was frequently designated as "myself" or "I am" showing that a relatively small number of students believed they had not been influenced by anyone and had reached the decision as a result of their own decision-making ability. Boy friends or girl friends were perceived as slightly more influential than brothers and sisters.

The table has a chi square value of 6.89 which, with 8 degrees of freedom, gives a probability level of 0.549. The relationship is not statistically significant.

Adult Versus Peer Influence

Three questions were employed to secure data about the influence adults and peers exerted on respondents. The first question concerned a decision of students to join a club of which their parents disapproved. Respondents were requested to indicate whether they would or would not join the club. Results of the selections made by the respondents are tabulated in Table XXIV.

The results are consistent with previous findings. The family has great influence on adolescent and 71.7 per cent of the students stated they probably or definitely would not join a club against their parents' wishes.

The pattern of responses again is not statistically significant. The chi square value of 1.60 with 3 degrees of freedom gives a probability level of 0.659.

A second question introduced another factor into the decision respondents were requested to make: if students were required to choose between the adult group, their parents, and the peer group, their friends, would the pattern of responses differ? Students were asked whether or not they would join a club approved by adults if the decision to join would entail breaking with their closest friend. The choices are reported in Table XXV. The majority of the respondents, 74.8 per cent, stated they probably or definitely would not join while the remainder, 25.2 per cent, indicated they probably or definitely would join the club regardless of their closest friend not being allowed to join.

The pattern of responses again is not significant. The chi square value of 0.78 with 3 degrees of freedom gives a probability level of 0.854.

TABLE XXIV

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES AND
DECISION TO JOIN OR NOT TO JOIN A CLUB
AGAINST PARENTS' WISHES

Decision	Conflict Index				Total	
	Low		High			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Definitely join anyway	28	5.3	23	5.4	51	5.4
Probably join	113	21.5	105	24.7	218	22.9
Probably not join	274	52.1	217	50.9	491	51.6
Definitely not join	111	21.1	81	19.0	192	20.1
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 1.60, df = 3, p = 0.659$$

TABLE XXV

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES AND DECISION
TO JOIN OR NOT TO JOIN A CLUB IF FRIEND COULD NOT JOIN

Decision	Conflict Index				Total	
	Low		High			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Definitely join anyway	17	3.2	18	4.2	35	3.7
Probably join	116	22.1	89	20.9	205	21.5
Probably not join	245	46.6	199	46.7	444	46.6
Definitely not join	148	28.1	120	28.2	268	28.2
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 0.78, df = 3, p = 0.854$$

The third question in this series concerning adult and peer influence asked respondents which action would be most difficult for them: teachers' disapproval, parents' disapproval, or breaking with a friend. Respondents' choices are reported in Table XXVI. The majority of respondents, 59.7 per cent, selected parental disapproval as the action most difficult to take. A relatively large number, 37.4 per cent, indicated that breaking with a friend would be more difficult for them than risking adult approval. Less than 3 per cent of the students stated that teacher disapproval is of major concern to them.

Findings reported in Tables XXV and XXVI when compared with findings reported in Tables XXII to XXIV underscore the ambiguities of adolescence. The family still constitutes the most important group in the life of the adolescent and parents are still his most significant others. He is unwilling to risk direct confrontation with them but he is beginning to gravitate towards the peer group and feels the attraction of enhanced peer relationships. Where the choice is clear, the adolescent follows parental wishes; where ambiguity of choice exists or where parental opposition is weak, he is influenced by his peers.

Cheating

Adults and adolescents may differ in their attitudes and behaviors. Probably one aspect of school life in which attitudes differ greatly is student cheating. Teachers view cheating as dishonest, as a student's effort to subvert the school's regulations, or as an affront against their authority. Regulations condemning cheating are imposed by the school's social system which is controlled by adults. Students may have little feeling of loyalty to this system and cheating, therefore, is not

TABLE XXVI

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES AND
ACTION DEEMED MOST DIFFICULT TO TAKE

Action	Conflict Index				Total	
	Low		High			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Parents' disapproval	308	58.6	260	61.0	568	59.7
Breaking with a friend	199	37.8	157	36.9	356	37.4
Teachers' disapproval	19	3.6	9	2.1	28	2.9
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$X^2 = 2.10, df = 2, p = 0.350$$

considered dishonest. Failure to protect other students from the results of breaking school regulations is considered as lack of loyalty to group mores. To the student, lack of loyalty is evidence of dishonesty (Knill, 1963). Adolescents, then, tend to conceal cheating and protect those in danger of discovery while adults attempt to discourage cheating and minimize chances of cheating occurring. To explore briefly this aspect of student attitudes towards peers and adults, respondents were asked to reply to three questions.

The first question asked students to estimate the extent to which students in the school cheated. Five varying amounts were indicated and respondents' selections of the amounts are reported in Table XXVII. A relatively large percentage of the respondents (40.8) did not commit themselves about the amount of cheating in their school by indicating the "Don't know" response. One-quarter of the respondents stated there

TABLE XXVII
RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES AND
AMOUNT OF CHEATING ESTIMATED BY RESPONDENTS

Amount of Cheating	Conflict Index					
	Low		High		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Don't know	224	42.6	164	38.5	388	40.8
None at all	132	25.1	106	24.9	238	25.0
Very little	158	30.0	138	32.4	296	31.1
Quite a lot	9	1.7	12	2.8	21	2.2
A great deal	3	0.6	6	1.4	9	0.9
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 4.44, df = 4, p = 0.349$$

was no cheating in the school, while 31.1 per cent indicated there was very little. Only 3.1 per cent believed a lot or a great deal of cheating was attempted. No significant relationship exists between low and high conflict index schools and estimated amount of cheating. The chi square value of 4.44 with 4 degrees of freedom gives a probability level of 0.349.

The second question asked students if they would submit another's assignment as their own. Two replies, "yes" and "no," were given and respondents' selections of these two answers are given in Table XXVIII. One student in four stated he would submit another's as his own, which in the eyes of teachers and parents may appear to be a high percentage who are prepared to cheat. Esti-

TABLE XXVIII

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES AND
DECISION TO SUBMIT ANOTHER'S ASSIGNMENT

Decision	Conflict Index				Total	
	Low		High			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
No	397	75.5	309	72.5	706	74.2
Yes	129	24.5	117	27.5	246	25.8
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 1.11, df = 1, p = 0.293$$

mates of the amount of cheating in schools, reported in Table XXVII may be conservative. The chi square value for the distribution of responses to this question is 1.11. The probability level, with 1 degree of freedom, is 0.293.

The third question introduced another factor in an attempt to discover the extent of student loyalty to the peer group. Respondents were asked if they would report another student for cheating during an examination. In the list of responses, in addition to "yes" and "no," two other alternatives were offered. The first was, "not if he were my friend" and the second was "undecided." Respondent selections are reported in Table XXIX.

Almost three-quarters of the respondents (72.8 per cent) would not report another student for cheating. Almost one-quarter (23.1 per cent) were undecided. A small proportion, 3.0 per cent, indicated they would report cheating with only a small percentage, 1.1,

TABLE XXIX

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES AND
DECISION TO REPORT ANOTHER STUDENT FOR CHEATING
DURING AN EXAMINATION

	Conflict Index					
	Low		High		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
No	381	72.4	312	73.3	693	72.8
Undecided	122	23.2	98	23.0	220	23.1
Yes	19	3.6	10	2.3	29	3.0
Not if he were my friend	4	0.8	6	1.4	10	1.1
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 2.13, df = 3, p = 0.062$$

would allow friendship to influence their decision. Adolescents appear to owe strong allegiance to the group but not necessarily to friends. The large percentage of negative responses shows clearly the dynamics of the students' social system in which members refuse to commit themselves to a type of behavior which is disloyal to the peer group but which would probably meet with adult approval.

Again the chi square value of 2.13 with 3 degrees of freedom gives a probability level of 0.062 which is not statistically significant.

Attributes Admired in Others

If there is adherence to the group, as the data in the previous section show, what are the personal attributes adolescents admire in others? What attributes are necessary to achieve popularity with the group? Ten choices were listed in the question which asked respondents

to select attributes considered necessary to achieve popularity. The choices were: being a good dancer, having sharp clothes, having a good personality, being athletic, being good at stirring up excitement, having money, drinking, smoking, being up on cars, and knowing what's going on in the world of popular singers, movie and TV stars. The selections made by the respondents are reported in Table XXX.

Three quarters of the respondents (74.9 per cent) stated personality, and no definition of personality was provided for the respondents, is the principal attribute adolescents must possess to be popular. About one student in twenty indicated one of four attributes were important: Clothes -- 6.5 per cent; stirring up excitement -- 4.9 per cent; athletic -- 4.8 per cent; and a good dancer -- 4.0 per cent. The remaining five attributes received less than five per cent of the choices.

The contingency table compiled from the selections has a chi square value of 11.64 which, with 9 degrees of freedom, has a probability level of 0.274. The relationships are not statistically significant.

Vignette Identification

The fourth vignette described two students and their reasons for associating with others:

Two students were talking about their classmates. The first student said he always tried to be friendly and to fit in with the class since he didn't like being left out and he enjoyed being with people. The second student said he believed in being friendly too, but his reason was different. He said if you were friendly with people you would be able to get more things done the way you wanted, you'd be more likely to get better grades from teachers and less likely to have people against you.

The first student was designated as gregarious while the second student was described as manipulative. Respondents were given the option of identifying with either of the students or not being able to

TABLE XXX

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES AND
ATTRIBUTES NECESSARY FOR POPULARITY

Attributes	Conflict Index					
	Low		High		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Have a good personality	399	75.9	313	73.5	712	74.9
Have sharp clothes	35	6.7	27	6.3	62	6.5
Be good at stirring up excitement	19	3.6	28	6.6	47	4.9
Be athletic	26	4.9	20	4.7	46	4.8
Be a good dancer	21	4.0	17	4.0	38	4.0
Have money	10	1.9	4	0.9	14	1.5
Be up on cars	7	1.3	6	1.4	13	1.4
Drinking	4	0.8	3	0.7	7	0.7
Knowing what's going on in the world of popular singers, movie and TV stars	2	0.4	5	1.2	7	0.7
Smoking	3	0.6	3	0.7	6	0.6

$$\chi^2 = 11.64, df = 9, p = 0.274$$

decide. Their choices are reported in Table XXXI.

Two-thirds of the students identified with the gregarious student while almost one-quarter (23.7 per cent) identified with the manipulative student. One student in ten found identification with either student impossible. The relationship with a probability of 0.032 is statistically significant. Differences between identification are not great. Relatively more students in high conflict index schools (67.8 per cent versus 65.0 per cent) identified with the gregarious student and also with the manipulative student (24.7 per cent versus 23.0 per cent). The greatest difference occurs in the impossible to decide category in which more students in low conflict index schools (12.0 per cent versus 7.5 per cent) selected this option. In schools in which student and teacher expectations are congruent and in which, consequently, conflict is low, it would be anticipated that a friendly atmosphere would be created. Students in these schools would be expected to identify with the gregarious student but the trend of student choices does not follow the expected direction.

Summary

A summary of the chi square values for the relationships between the conflict indices and student attitudes towards their associates is reported in Table XXXII. Only one of the ten relationships tested is statistically significant beyond the 0.05 level. In the significant relationship, more students in low conflict index schools compared with students in high conflict index schools identified with the gregarious student in the vignette.

The seventh hypothesis stated a relationship would exist between

TABLE XXXI

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES AND
IDENTIFICATION WITH STUDENTS IN THE FOURTH VIGNETTE

Identification	Conflict Index				Total	
	Low		High			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very much like the first student	154	29.3	125	29.3	279	29.3
Somewhat like the first student	188	35.7	164	38.5	352	37.0
Somewhat like the second student	82	15.6	85	20.0	167	17.5
Very much like the second student	39	7.4	20	4.7	59	6.2
Impossible to decide	63	12.0	32	7.5	95	10.0
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 10.55, df = 4, p = 0.032$$

the conflict index and student attitudes towards their associates. The data in this study indicate that no statistically significant relationship exists between the conflict index and student attitudes towards peers and/or adults.

III. LEVELS OF OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATION

The Occupational Aspiration Scale

The Haller and Miller (1963) Occupational Aspiration Scale was used to measure student level of occupational aspiration. Prior to transferring the data to punch cards, individual scores for each res-

TABLE XXXII

SUMMARY OF CHI SQUARE VALUES FOR RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CONFLICT INDICES AND STUDENT ATTITUDES TOWARDS THEIR ASSOCIATES

Dependent Variable	χ^2	df	p
Group most important to respondents	2.06	5	0.841
Person most influential in keeping the respondent in school	6.89	8	0.549
Decision to join a club against parents' wishes	1.60	3	0.659
Decision to join a club if best friend couldn't join	0.78	3	0.854
Action most difficult to take	2.10	2	0.350
Estimated amount of cheating	4.44	4	0.349
Decision to submit another's assignment	1.11	1	0.293
Report cheating	7.13	3	0.062
Attributes necessary for popularity	11.64	9	0.274
Identification with fourth vignette	10.55	4	0.032*

* significant at the 0.05 level

pondent were computed. The individual scores for the Occupational Aspiration Scale ranged from 11 to 69 with a mean of 45.2 and a standard deviation of 9.6. To analyze the data, six independent variables were employed: sex, social class, grade level, school size, school location, and individual schools. To test differences between means, a one-way analysis of variance technique was employed followed by the Newman-

Keuls Test for ordered means. The F-values for the six independent variables are reported in Table XXXIII. Results of the analysis show all variables have statistically significant F-values with grade level having the smallest F-value, 4.67, and school size having the largest, 70.72.

The order of means for the six variables, from high to low, is reported in Table XXXIV, and the result of the Newman-Keuls Test is reported in Table XXXV. The level of occupational aspiration is a function of social class. Higher class students aspire to enter higher social class occupations such as lawyers, physicists, and corporation directors. Lower class students aspire to enter occupations they perceive to be closer to their present class: mechanic, waiter, truck driver. Similarly, level of occupational aspiration is a function of sex (boys have higher aspirations than girls); grade level (the higher the grade, the higher the occupational aspiration); school size (students in large schools have higher aspirations than students in small schools); and school location (students in urban areas have higher aspirations than students in rural areas).

Occupational Aspiration and Conflict Indices

To test the relationship between levels of occupational aspiration and the conflict indices, respondents' scores on the Occupational Aspiration Scale were dichotomized at the mean score for all respondents and the appropriate contingency table compiled. The results are reported in Table XXXVI. The chi square value of 6.22 with 1 degree of freedom gives a probability level of 0.023. More respondents, 54.4 per cent, with high occupational aspiration levels were in low conflict index schools while

TABLE XXXIII

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE: ONE-WAY CLASSIFICATION
OF OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATION SCALE

Source of Variation	F-Value	Degrees of Freedom		Probability
		Between	Within	
Schools	12.79	9	942	0.00
Social Class	12.94	6	895	0.00
Sex	18.34	1	950	0.00
School Size	70.72	1	950	0.00
Grade Level	4.67	2	949	0.01
School Location	50.71	1	950	0.00

TABLE XXXIV

ORDERED MEANS OF STUDENT SCORES ON THE
OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATION SCALE

Variable	Ordered Means (High to Low)
Schools	I > G > H > D > E > J > F > A > C > B
Social Class	1 > 2 > 4 > 3 > 6 > 5 > 7
Sex	Male > Female
School Size	Large > Small
Grade Level	XII > XI > X
School Location	Urban > Rural

TABLE XXXV

NEWMAN-KEULS COMPARISON BETWEEN ORDERED STUDENT MEANS
ON THE OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATION SCALE

Variable	Paired Means, Significantly Different
Schools	I > B; I > C; I > A; I > F; I > J; I > E; G > B; G > C; G > A; G > J; H > B; H > C; H > A; D > B.
Social Class	1 > 7; 1 > 5; 1 > 6; 2 > 7; 2 > 5; 2 > 6; 4 > 7; 4 > 5; 3 > 7.
Sex	Male > Female
School Size	Large > Small
School Location	Urban > Rural

TABLE XXXVI

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES
AND OCCUPATIONAL ASPIRATION LEVEL

Occupation Aspiration	Conflict Index					
	Low		High		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Low	240	45.6	229	53.8	469	49.3
High	286	54.4	197	46.2	483	50.7
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$x^2 = 6.22, df = 1, p = 0.023$$

a higher percentage, 53.8, with low occupational aspiration levels were in high conflict index schools.

Results of the analysis of variance showed significant differences between social classes on the Occupational Aspiration Scale. The established differences were primarily between the low and high ends of the social class scale and not between adjacent social classes.

Boys and girls differed significantly in their occupational aspirations as measured by the Occupational Aspiration Scale. Reconstruction of the scale for girls had been performed so differences in mean scores may be true because of different aspiration levels, or spurious because of lack of validity of the instrument.

School location and school size both appear to be related to respondents' scores on the Occupational Aspiration Scale. Students in large schools and students in urban schools had significantly higher scores than had students in small schools and in rural areas.

The eighth hypothesis predicted a relationship between the conflict indices and student level of occupational aspiration. The relationship is statistically significant and the trend of the responses is congruent with the theoretical formulation of the thesis. However, other factors such as social class, sex, school location and size are also significantly related to levels of occupational aspiration.

IV. THE ADOLESCENT'S ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE WORLD OF WORK

The socialization of the young is complete, from society's vantage point, when the young adult enters the world of work and becomes a self-sustaining, productive member. At the same point in time, from the in-

dividual's point of view, the interaction with peers and adults will have developed the child ". . . into the complex, organized, responsible 'self' of the fully participating member of the community." (Card, 1968, pp. 4-5). As the high school adolescent moves towards ". . . fully participating member of the community. . ." status, he will be developing attitudes towards his future in the world of work. Many will have had work experience. Many, perhaps all, will have reflected about commitments to the job with its rewards and satisfactions. The results of these reflections, however fleeting they may be, together with the orientation to reference group norms and values and the patterning of behavior after significant others, will have produced within each high school student certain attitudes and values.

In attempting to assess student attitudes towards the world of work, four questions were designed to elicit student opinions about job satisfaction and rewards, and about criteria used to judge success, and the attributes necessary to gain advancement. In addition, respondents were requested to identify themselves with one of two students in the fifth vignette.

Job Satisfaction

Respondents were requested to select the requirement which they believed would give them the greatest satisfaction if they obtained the "ideal" job. Eight possible alternatives were presented to respondents which were selected by them in the following orders, as reported in Table XXXVII: 1) the promise of a secure future; 2) a chance to do what I am really good at; 3) a chance to get ahead if I work hard; 4) a chance to help others; 5) friendly, easy-going people to work

TABLE XXXVII

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES
AND REQUIREMENTS FOR JOB SATISFACTION

Requirements	Conflict Index				Total	
	Low		High			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
The promise of a secure future	216	41.1	191	44.8	407	42.8
A chance to do what I am really good at	151	28.6	103	24.2	254	26.6
A chance to get ahead if I work hard	75	14.2	57	13.4	132	13.8
A chance to help others	52	10.0	42	9.9	94	10.0
Friendly, easy-going people to work with	21	4.0	20	4.7	41	4.3
A chance to organize things the way I like	5	1.0	5	1.2	10	1.1
Not too much pressure on me to get things done	5	1.0	4	0.9	9	0.9
Plenty of benefits like vacations and medical care	1	0.1	4	0.9	5	0.5
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 5.62, df = 7, p = 0.585$$

with; 6) a chance to organize things the way I like; 7) not too much pressure on me to get things done; and 8) plenty of benefits like vacations and medical care.

The promise of a secure future received more of the respondents' choices, 42.8 per cent, than any of the other alternatives. Slightly over one-quarter of the respondents, 26.6 per cent, want an opportunity

to undertake the things which they do well. About one student in eight, 13.8 per cent, wants the satisfaction of promotion as a result of his work and one student in ten, 10.0 per cent, would get satisfaction from assisting others. About one student in twenty, 4.3 per cent, would be satisfied if he had friendly, easy-going people with whom he could work. Only 2.5 per cent of the respondents indicated the remaining three alternatives, chance to organize, lack of pressure, and fringe benefits would give them satisfaction.

No statistically significant differences existed between low and high conflict schools and the pattern of responses. The chi square value of 5.62 with 7 degrees of freedom gives a probability level of 0.585.

Job Reward

A second question focussing on student attitudes and the world of work requested students to indicate the rewards from the job which they considered important. Six alternative responses were presented and selected in the following order: 1) a sense of accomplishment; 2) a feeling of doing something worthwhile; 3) money; 4) a sense of security; 5) the respect of others; and 6) a feeling of independence. Respondents' selections are reported in Table XXXVIII.

The most apparent feature about the distribution of responses is the lack of consensus. In the previous table, two-thirds of the responses were assigned to two items. In Table XXXVIII, the percentage of replies assigned to the items varies from a high of 26.1 to a low of 7.8. Obviously there was more agreement, among adolescents, about the satisfactions they will receive from a job than about the rewards. About

TABLE XXXVIII
RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES
AND JOB REWARD ELEMENTS

Elements	Conflict Index					
	Low		High		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
A sense of accomplishment	140	26.6	108	25.4	248	26.1
A feeling of doing some- thing worthwhile	112	21.3	89	20.9	201	21.1
Money	96	18.3	79	18.5	175	18.4
A sense of security	69	13.1	73	17.1	142	14.8
The respect of others	66	12.5	46	10.8	112	11.8
A feeling of independence	43	8.2	31	7.3	74	7.8
Total	526	100.00	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 3.58, df = 5, p = 0.612$$

one-quarter (26.1 per cent) believed a sense of accomplishment is most important while about one-fifth (21.1 per cent) stated a feeling of doing something worthwhile is the greatest reward. Material reward, in the form of money, ranked third with 18.4 per cent of the respondents choosing this element as most important. A few more than one-seventh of the respondents (14.8 per cent) stated a sense of security would be most important to them and about one-eighth (11.8 per cent) felt the respect of others would be the greatest reward. Only about one-twelfth (7.8 per cent) stated that a feeling of independence would be their greatest reward. When compared to the responses reported in the previous table, the consistent pattern is an emphasis on security and per-

sonal accomplishment. Students want to be recognized for what they can contribute; working conditions and material rewards are of secondary importance.

The chi square value for the table is 3.58 and with 5 degrees of freedom this value gives a probability level of 0.612. The results are not statistically significant and the only apparent trend is the responses to "a sense of security" alternative.

Success Criteria

In addition to receiving satisfaction from one's work and obtaining rewards for work accomplished, individuals have criteria against which they can measure the extent to which they are succeeding. Adolescents, whether they have internalized the values of adults or have developed their own value systems, should be able to evaluate the criteria they might utilize in judging success in life. A third question, therefore, requested students to select from among six criteria one which they would employ to describe success in life. The six criteria listed in the question were: a higher standing in the community; greater ability to influence others; a larger income; greater ability to help others; advancement in my job or career; more security for myself and family. The selections, in order of importance, are reported in Table XXXIX.

Advancement and security rank first and second in the number of respondents, 29.6 per cent and 27.2 per cent, who selected these criteria as measures of success. The ability to help others was selected by 17.6 per cent of the respondents. The lack of emphasis on the materialistic aspect of employment is reiterated by the relative few, 15.7 per cent,

TABLE XXXIX
RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES AND
SUCCESS CRITERIA

Criteria	Conflict Index				Total	
	Low		High			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Advancement in my job and career	153	29.1	129	30.3	282	29.6
More security for myself and family	136	25.9	123	28.9	259	27.2
Greater ability to help others	93	17.7	75	17.6	168	17.6
A larger income	86	16.3	63	14.8	149	15.7
A higher standing in the community	32	6.1	24	5.6	56	5.9
Greater ability to influence others	26	4.9	12	2.8	38	4.0
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 4.02, df = 5, p = 0.547$$

who chose a larger income as a criterion to measure success. Status and power have less appeal to adolescents than does a larger income. Fewer than ten per cent (9.9) selected either one or the other of these two alternatives as a measure of success. The argument could be advanced that the relative unimportance attached to material rewards does not present the complete picture. Advancement implies material rewards as does the selection of security. However, if the responses to all possible choices are evaluated, they are consistent with the responses reported in the two previous table and indicate students are concerned

about personal advancement and security for themselves in viewing their future occupations. Second to this concern they express the hope of serving others or making a social contribution which will give them a sense of self-actualization.

The relationship between low and high conflict indices and respondent choices of success criteria is not statistically significant. The chi square value of 4.02 with 5 degrees of freedom gives a probability level of 0.547.

Attributes Necessary for Success

When individuals achieve success in life, what personal attributes are responsible? When adolescents are on the verge of the world of work, what personal qualities do they believe will help them reach their goal? A fourth question listed the attributes which might be considered necessary to achieve success in one's occupation. Respondents were requested to make a selection from these attributes: hard work; pleasant personality; brains; knowing the right people; good luck; being a politician; having a good family background. The selections, in order of importance, are reported in Table XL.

Over half of the respondents, 54.5 per cent, believed hard work is the necessary attribute for success and one-fifth, 20.7 per cent, believed intelligence is the necessary attribute. Pleasant personality was selected as the attribute by one-eighth, 12.5 per cent. One-tenth of the respondents indicated that knowing the right people was the necessary personal ingredient to achieve success. The three remaining options, family, luck, and being a politician were rated as important by 2.3 per cent of the respondents. Most of the respondents, 87.7 per cent, indi-

TABLE XL
RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES AND
ATTRIBUTES NECESSARY FOR SUCCESS

Attributes	Conflict Index				Total	
	Low		High			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Hard work	282	53.6	237	55.6	519	54.5
Brains	110	20.9	87	20.5	197	20.7
Pleasant personality	60	11.4	59	13.8	119	12.5
Knowing the right people	64	12.2	31	7.3	95	10.0
Having a good family background	8	1.5	9	2.1	17	1.8
Good luck	1	0.2	3	0.7	4	0.4
Being a politician	1	0.2	0	0.0	1	0.1
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 9.72, df = 6, p = 0.137$$

cated that personal success depended upon attributes within the individual and over which he might exercise a measure of control.

The chi square value for the table is 9.72 which with 6 degrees of freedom gives a non-significant probability level of 0.137.

Vignette Identification

The fifth vignette briefly described two students discussing their outlook on life:

Two students were discussing their outlook on life. The first student said that he thought the most important thing in life was for a person to stand up for certain principles and beliefs and be prepared to make sacrifices for them if necessary. The second student said he thought the most important thing in life was for a person to find as much happiness and satisfaction as possible, to get something out of

living.

They were termed "idealistic" and "hedonistic." Respondent identification with the two students is reported in Table XLI. Over one-third of the respondents (35.6 per cent) identified with the idealistic student, while 9.5 per cent found identification with either student impossible.

The results of the choices have a chi square value of 9.53 and with 4 degrees of freedom, the value has a probability level of 0.049. More students, proportionally, in high conflict index schools identified with the idealistic student while more students in low conflict index schools identified with the hedonistic student. If students in low conflict index schools have goals congruent with those of adults, then selection of a hedonistic rather than idealistic life style would be anticipated (Knill, 1963). The trend of the selections in Table XLI supports the theoretical position outlined earlier in the thesis.

Summary

The ninth hypothesis posited relationships between the conflict indices and student attitudes towards the world of work. Aspects of the relationship investigated are summarized in Table XLII. One of the five relationships, identification with students in the vignette, is statistically significant. Little relationship exists between the conflict indices and student attitudes towards the world of work.

V. FACTOR ANALYSIS

To provide a more rigorous test of the hypotheses, replies to forty-two items on the Student's Questionnaire were factor analyzed using the principal axis method with a varimax rotation. Factors and factor load-

TABLE XLI

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN LOW AND HIGH CONFLICT INDICES AND
IDENTIFICATION WITH STUDENTS IN THE FIFTH VIGNETTE

Identification	Conflict Index				Total	
	Low		High			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very much like the first student	73	13.9	81	19.0	154	16.1
Somewhat like the first student	102	19.4	84	18.7	186	19.5
Somewhat like the second student	131	24.9	120	28.2	251	26.4
Very much like the second student	165	31.4	106	24.9	271	28.5
Impossible to decide	55	10.5	35	8.2	90	9.5
Total	526	100.0	426	100.0	952	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 9.53, df = 4, p = 0.049$$

TABLE XLII

SUMMARY OF CHI SQUARE VALUES FOR CONFLICT INDICES AND
STUDENT ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE WORLD OF WORK

Dependent Variables	χ^2	df	p
Satisfaction expected from ideal job	5.62	7	0.585
Reward anticipated from job	3.58	5	0.612
Criteria for measuring success	4.02	5	0.547
Attributes necessary for success	9.72	6	0.137
Identification with students in fifth vignette	9.53	4	0.049*

ings are reported in Table XLIII. Six factors emerged as a result of the analysis and these factors were named: 1) Referent Orientation; 2) Heterosexual Involvement; 3) Political Efficacy; 4) Work Orientation; 5) Work Satisfaction; and 6) Success Orientation.

Description of the Factors

Factor I. Referent Orientation - the feeling or sense of identification with either the family, peer group, or adult groups outside the home.

Factor II. Heterosexual Involvement - the involvement of boys and girls with members of the opposite sex.

Factor III. Political Efficacy - the feeling that the individual can and does have an impact on the political process (See supra, p.45).

Factor IV. Work Orientation - the belief that to achieve a sense of fulfilment and independence a person must be productive.

Factor V. Work Satisfaction - the feeling that an ideal job can offer the satisfaction young people desire.

Factor VI. Success Orientation - the feeling that success in life can be achieved and efforts will be rewarded.

Intercorrelation Matrix

Factor scores for each individual in the sample (N = 952) were punched on separate cards and an intercorrelation matrix was computed by using the factor scores and individual responses to fifteen other variables. The variables correlated with the factor scores and with each other were:

1. Intelligence

TABLE XLIII

FACTOR LOADINGS OF FORTY-TWO QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS ON SIX VARIMAX FACTORS

No.	Comm- unal- ities	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	Ques- tion No.
1	0.231	0.327	-0.074	-0.244	-0.216	-0.014	0.109	-C.8
2	0.145	0.366	0.012	-0.077	-0.002	0.054	-0.040	-C.9
3	0.256	-0.475	0.051	-0.025	0.068	0.106	-0.107	-D.2
4	0.186	0.337	-0.241	0.045	-0.009	-0.019	0.106	-D.3-i
5	0.428	-0.639	0.033	0.110	-0.026	0.032	0.069	-D.4
6	0.392	0.507	-0.128	0.148	-0.156	-0.197	0.182	-D.6
7	0.112	-0.275	0.006	0.127	-0.043	0.009	0.138	-D.8
8	0.247	-0.457	0.034	0.185	-0.048	0.025	-0.013	-D.9
9	0.125	0.328	0.051	0.036	0.061	0.094	0.027	-D.11-ii
10	0.146	0.355	-0.063	0.067	0.078	0.031	0.070	-D.11-iii
11	0.086	0.231	0.006	-0.065	-0.096	0.058	-0.125	-F.1
12	0.106	0.247	0.048	-0.178	-0.034	-0.092	-0.036	-F.5-i
13	0.057	0.194	-0.010	-0.045	0.058	-0.004	0.115	-F.5-ii
14	0.073	0.127	-0.208	-0.026	0.056	0.050	0.085	-D.3-ii
15	0.641	0.086	-0.793	0.062	-0.000	0.001	0.002	-G.4
16	0.779	0.024	0.879	0.068	-0.040	-0.020	0.002	-G.5
17	0.791	-0.037	-0.886	-0.059	-0.003	0.012	-0.039	-G.6
18	0.039	0.043	0.019	-0.168	0.021	0.025	-0.085	-C.10
19	0.092	0.113	0.052	-0.180	0.073	0.144	0.134	-D.10
20	0.441	-0.095	0.023	0.641	-0.030	0.024	-0.137	-D.3
21	0.483	0.012	0.104	0.662	0.016	0.093	-0.158	-E.4
22	0.491	-0.101	-0.007	0.676	0.049	0.002	-0.146	-E.5
23	0.258	0.165	0.061	0.398	-0.069	-0.046	-0.249	-E.6
24	0.023	0.083	-0.008	-0.109	-0.044	0.027	-0.039	-A.3
25	0.811	0.054	-0.063	0.015	0.896	0.012	0.034	-G.7
26	0.815	0.002	-0.053	-0.008	0.900	-0.013	0.041	-G.8
27	0.104	-0.150	0.010	0.130	-0.162	0.162	0.108	-A.2
28	0.137	0.209	0.082	0.019	0.005	-0.293	0.026	-C.5-i
29	0.028	0.007	-0.011	0.015	-0.083	0.108	0.097	-C.6
30	0.106	0.176	-0.042	-0.147	0.049	-0.209	-0.078	-D.11-i
31	0.519	-0.180	-0.027	0.072	-0.018	-0.693	-0.015	-F.2-i
32	0.561	0.014	-0.038	0.022	0.026	0.745	0.048	-F.2-ii
33	0.196	0.183	-0.125	-0.066	0.006	0.224	0.305	-C.3
34	0.135	0.004	-0.190	-0.082	-0.033	-0.025	0.301	-C.4
35	0.111	0.170	-0.030	-0.056	0.013	0.031	0.278	-C.5-i
36	0.324	0.080	-0.180	0.245	-0.031	-0.269	0.390	-D.5
37	0.102	-0.003	-0.005	-0.044	0.002	0.002	0.317	-D.7
38	0.074	0.174	0.086	0.026	0.012	0.014	-0.189	-E.7
39	0.188	-0.025	-0.110	0.120	0.006	-0.114	-0.385	-F.3-i
40	0.224	-0.035	-0.099	-0.028	-0.096	0.213	0.397	-F.3-ii
41	0.329	-0.120	-0.140	0.052	-0.073	0.065	-0.531	-F.4-i
42	0.328	-0.266	0.029	0.146	0.085	0.031	0.476	-F.4-ii
11.720	2.328	2.494	1.907	1.798	1.504	1.689		

2. Length of residence in the community
3. Grade level
4. Age
5. Amount of time devoted to homework each evening
6. Occupational Aspiration Scale score
7. Amount of time spent each week on extracurricular activities
8. Number of evenings spent at home each week
9. Number of evenings spent outside the home each week with members of the peer group
10. Amount of time spent each week working outside the home
11. Achievement Orientation Test score
12. Academic achievement
13. Sex
14. Social class
15. Index of role conflict

The intercorrelation matrix is reported in Table XLIV.

Factor I, Referent Orientation, was positively associated, i.e., statistically significant, with intelligence, number of evenings per week spent with the peer group outside the home, and religious affiliation. It was negatively associated with the amount of homework done each evening and the number of evenings spent at home with the family.

Factor II, Heterosexual Involvement, the attractiveness of the other sex was positively associated with intelligence, the level of occupational aspiration score, number of evenings spent at home each week with the family, and academic achievement. It was negatively associated with grade level, age, evenings spent out with the peer group, and sex. Boys are less attracted to girls than girls to boys.

TABLE XLIV
INTERCORRELATION MATRIX OF SIX FACTOR SCORES AND SEVENTEEN STUDENT ATTRIBUTES

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Factor I	-																				
Factor II	00	-																			
Factor III	-00	00	-																		
Factor IV	-00	-00	-00	-																	
Factor V	-00	00	-00	00	-																
Factor VI	00	-00	00	00	-00	-															
I.Q.	12	12	15	-09	-13	-22	-														
Residence	02	06	04	04	02	-02	-05	-													
Grade	04	-14	06	06	02	-17	-03	18	-												
Age	02	-10	-00	08	06	-02	-17	10	33	-											
Homework	-26	02	11	-06	-03	-16	-02	03	22	08	-										
OAS	03	11	16	-05	-07	-25	40	-01	09	-07	16	-									
Extracurricular	04	03	19	03	-01	-17	17	04	08	-00	02	22	-								
Evening at home	-23	20	-04	-16	05	-04	-03	-01	-00	-03	25	-01	-09	-							
Evening out with gang	24	-14	01	07	-08	03	07	03	-03	02	-22	02	07	-69	-						
Working	05	-06	01	90	01	04	-08	01	10	09	-06	-07	02	-16	07	-					
AOT	05	01	10	-03	-07	-15	27	-04	12	03	05	27	07	04	01	-02	-				
Achievement	03	20	16	-11	-08	-22	60	02	03	-12	13	37	20	07	-02	-11	24	-			
Sex	-28	-23	09	-10	-04	05	-09	-05	-10	-06	18	-14	01	07	-04	-06	-01	-02	-		
Social class	-04	00	-07	07	09	09	-22	04	-01	06	-06	-19	-12	-01	03	05	-13	-16	00	-	
Conflict index	-01	-01	-03	-01	-01	03	-04	-19	-12	-00	-05	-04	-02	-01	03	-01	02	-04	06	03	-

$r = .07$, $df = 900$, $p = 0.05$

$r = .08$, $df = 900$, $p = 0.01$

Factor III, Political Efficacy, was associated positively with intelligence, amount of time devoted to homework each evening, the level of occupational aspiration score, involvement in extracurricular activities, the Achievement Orientation Test score, academic achievement and sex. Negative relationships exist between political efficacy and social class and religion.

Factor IV, Work Orientation, is positively related to age, number of evenings spent out with the peer group, with students who are working and social class. Work orientation is negatively related to intelligence, number of evenings spent with the family, academic achievement and sex. Boys are less work oriented than girls.

Factor V, Work Satisfaction, is positively related to social class. It is negatively associated with intelligence, level of occupational aspiration, evenings spent out with the peer group, and academic achievement.

Factor VI, Success Orientation, is positively associated only with social class. It is negatively associated with intelligence, grade level, amount of time spent on homework each evening, the level of occupational aspiration, involvement in extracurricular activities, Achievement Orientation Test score, and academic achievement.

Two of the fifteen variables -- length of residence in the community, and grade level -- are significantly correlated with the conflict indices. Significant correlations are reported in Table XLV. None of the six factors identified correlated significantly with the conflict indices.

The length of time a respondent has resided in the community is negatively correlated with the conflict indices. The longer students have resided in the community, the lower is the conflict index in the school. Schools which have a low index of conflict will have students enrolled

TABLE XLV

PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT INTERCORRELATION MATRIX OF
CONFLICT INDEX, RESIDENCE AND GRADE

Variable	1	2	3
1. Conflict Index	1		
2. Residence	-.19	-	
3. Grade	-.12	.18	-

$r = .08$, $df = 900$, $p = 0.01$

whose years of residence in the community will be greater than the length of residence in the community of students in schools whose index of conflict is high. It might be inferred from this finding that the students who are new-comers to the school have not perceived the expectations of the teachers, where students who have resided in the community for a longer period have perceived the expectations of the teachers and self expectations have become more congruent with teacher expectations.

Grade level is also negatively correlated with the conflict indices. The higher the grade, the lower will be the conflict index. Perceptions of teacher expectations by students in Grade X when compared to those by students in Grade XII may not be as accurate and consequently their self expectations may not be as congruent with teacher expectations. Two factors may help to account for a greater congruency of student and teacher expectations in higher grades. First, the length of time students are enrolled in the high school may allow more accurate perception of teacher expectation and students are then able to pattern their self

expectations after teacher expectations. Second, students whose expectations are not congruent with the expectations of the teachers may have left school. Thus, students who have remained in school until they are in Grade XII are the students whose self expectations are congruent with teacher expectations.

VI. SUMMARY

In Chapter II some views of today's adolescent were presented. In this section an attempt will be made, based on the studies reviewed, to portray the typical adolescent. Against this backdrop, the prototypic adolescent, based on information gained from this study, will be placed.

The Canadian teenager continues to attend high school because of the advantages it offers him vis-a-vis his obtaining entrance to university, or a general education which admits him into business or technical post-secondary education, or which conveys him directly into the job market. He cares little for school and if given the opportunity to withdraw from the institution, the chances are one in eight that he would do so.

His parents exert effective influence on his decisions although his desire to develop his self-independence and the difficulty of communicating across generations lessens parental power. Parental influence will have as great, or greater, an effect upon his future actions when compared to the affect his parents have on him at the present time.

The typical adolescent's level of occupational aspiration is related to his family's social position and to his place of residence. The sex of the adolescent is also related to the level of occupational aspiration. He wants a job with security and pleasant working conditions. He believes he will achieve success by being a pleasant person and working hard and,

to him, success is measured by the increased security he achieves. The typical adolescent adheres strongly to the belief that success in life is based on individual effort but his goal, in part, is to assist other people.

The typical adolescent, according to information obtained for this study, has a pragmatic approach to education. He does not greatly like school but attends and will continue to attend because of what education offers -- enhanced career opportunities. His immediate family is important to him and exercises an influence on his decision-making. In a conflict of interests, peer versus family, if the adolescent has to sever relationships with a friend, the decision is a difficult one. He identifies with gregarious, other-directed adolescents and, to him, the most important attribute possessed by these individuals is their personality.

As a boy from a middle-class home in an urban center, the typical adolescent's occupational aspirations are related to these characteristics. When he completes his education, hopefully university, he wants a job offering security and an opportunity to perform tasks at which he is competent. He has not given much thought to the rewards employment brings but he wants additional security for himself and his family together with some recognition for his performance and a chance to achieve independence. He will measure his degree of achievement of success by the extent he advances in his field but he isn't, at least for the present, concerned with status and power.

To the typical adolescent, luck, family background, and knowing the right people are not important; hard work and intelligence are responsible for success in life.

Today's typical adolescent might be classified as a hedonistic

pragmatist but, ambivalently, he exhibits a strong sense of idealism. The ambivalent stance of high school students suggests that while certain behaviors and attitudes may be labelled typical, the individuality of each adolescent should not be totally ignored.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND IMPLICATIONS

I. THEORY, PROBLEM, AND METHODOLOGY

Theoretical Framework

Many theories have been evolved concerning the period of life during which the young of society develop into adults. Central to these theories is the concept that adolescence is a transitional period in which individuals acquire a new self-identity. Because of physical maturation and accompanying emotional stresses, the period is generally an unstable one for the individual.

In attempting to provide stability for himself in changing conditions, the adolescent identifies with peer stereotypes. Faced with conflicting, frustrating forces, he frequently reacts against these conditions with aggressive behavior. The effects of instability, peer-identification, aggressiveness, and the continued subtle, delicate task of ego acquisition are responsible for extreme positions adolescent often take and for their drastic changes in behavior.

The adolescent in today's complex industrial society, in addition to the problem of acquiring his own ego identity, faces many conflicting cultural forces. The discontinuities of society, for example, in the change from son to father, demand radical role changes for which the adolescent is ill-prepared. Development of an adolescent sub-culture with its own value and status systems promotes intergenerational conflict. At the same time that the adolescent faces hostile competing forces, he is continually confronted with the conflicting demands of a vast mass

media network.

Conflict within the individual and between the individual and the broader society seems to be the salient characteristic of adolescence. A typology representative of types and dimensions of conflict was developed. Three types of conflict were postulated: within the adolescent, within peer groups, and between the adolescent sub-culture and the adult culture. Sex, status, responsibility, and achievement were suggested as pertinent dimensions of the adolescent's role where the three types of conflict might be generated. In the school, particularly, these three types of conflict might develop about student academic achievement.

Part of the rationale for the study was based on the possibility of quantifying student and teacher expectations for student academic achievement so that within a school a conflict index could be derived. A measure of an individual's achievement orientation, based on his achievement syndrome, provided scores which permitted the computation of a conflict index.

The Problem

Exploration of the conflict between students and teachers about academic achievement, then, appeared to be pertinent and useful. More specifically, the study was designed to investigate relationships between expectations of high school students and of teachers for achievement and student attitudes towards education, their associates, and the world of work.

Instrumentation

Two questionnaires were developed to collect the data for the study. One, the Teacher's Questionnaire, consisted of a single sheet on which

teacher respondents were required to check off items giving biographical information about themselves and to respond to Rosen's Achievement Orientation Test. The Student's Questionnaire included a section which allowed collection of biographical information in addition to three instruments:

- 1) Rosen's Achievement Orientation Test -- identical to the test on the Teacher's Questionnaire which was designed to tap achievement motivation;
- 2) Campbell's Political Efficacy Scale which was designed to measure the student's belief that an individual can have some impact upon the political process;
- 3) Haller's Occupational Aspiration Scale which was designed to discover attitudes towards education, associates, and the world of work were included.

Population and Data Collection

The population consisted of students and teachers in attendance at ten selected Manitoba high schools on the days when the questionnaires were administered. One hundred and seventy-seven teachers completed questionnaires to supply basic data about the teachers' backgrounds and scores on the Achievement Orientation Test. Three thousand, three hundred and seventy-eight students completed usable questionnaires. An approximate one-quarter random sample ($N = 952$) drawn from the 3,378 respondents who completed the Student's Questionnaire supplied the data for the statistical analysis.

In January, 1964, the researcher visited each school and administered the questionnaires to staff members of the schools. Student questionnaires were administered by the teachers under the direct supervision of the researcher. During the same period, student scores on Grade IX academic achievement examinations and general ability tests were obtained

from the Manitoba Department of Education records.

Statistical Treatment

Three basic statistical procedures were used: 1) one-way analysis of variance was utilized to test for differences among teacher and student scores on the Achievement Orientation Test and for differences among student scores on the Occupational Aspiration Scale; 2) measures of association between the conflict index and student attitudes were obtained by applying the chi square test; 3) replies to forty-two items on the Student's Questionnaire were factor analyzed, factor scores obtained, and an intercorrelation matrix for six factors and fifteen student variables computed.

II. FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS

Hypotheses

1.0. Hypothesis 1.0. predicated the existence of relationships between expectations for achievement and teacher characteristics. Although the greatest difference for mean scores on the Achievement Orientation Test existed between male and female teachers, none of the differences was statistically significant. As a group, teachers apparently did not differ in their expectations about achievement.

1.1. Hypothesis 1.1. stated that relationships existed between teacher expectations for achievement and the school characteristics of size and location. No statistically significant differences existed between teachers' mean scores when grouped by size and location.

1.2. Hypothesis 1.2. indicated the existence of relationships between expectations for achievement and student characteristics of sex,

schools and in other geographical settings.

Implications

For Administrators. The findings that teachers do not have dissimilar achievement orientations has implications for educational administrators. Schools enrol students who have great variations in ability level and achievement orientations. To provide a suitable learning situation, teacher expectations should not be so incongruent with student expectations that the student is unable to reach goals in keeping with his abilities. Students who are being continually frustrated by their inability to achieve even minimum goals cannot be expected to embrace the aims and objectives of the school and the degree of socialization which takes place in the school will be minimal. If students from socially deprived sections of the population are confronted by teachers who have high achievement orientations, the problem of school drop-outs in the lower social classes will remain unsolved. Administrators in schools and school systems should be aware of the lack of differences of teacher achievement orientations and attempt to make teachers aware of the impact this congruency will have on students with widely differing achievement orientations.

A second implication for educational administrators results from the academic tenor of the school. The relatively large number of students planning to attend university and the relatively large number of students who were actually enrolled in university entrance courses provides evidence of the academic orientation of the school. If the school is to provide learning experiences for all levels of abilities and interests and if the school is to assist in the preparation of students for an increasing variety of occupations, then educational administrators must

make certain that a greater variety of programs is available to students. They must also provide the leadership necessary to persuade teachers, parents and students of the value of these programs.

Student responses to questionnaire items in the world of work section indicate unrealistic perceptions of future rewards, satisfactions, and successes. Because many students enter employment either directly, or shortly following the termination of their high school career, consideration should be given to providing means of disseminating information covering various phases of employment.

The lack of counselling services for high school students is obvious and requires attention. Selection of courses, university orientation, and unrealistic perception of the world of work, mentioned above, point to the need for vocational guidance. Student counselling may also be necessary in other areas of student endeavour but the data collected supply evidence that students require assistance in planning courses and that programs associated with career selection and with work orientation should be implemented.

Trends in the data indicate teachers exert little influence on opinions and attitudes of students. If lack of teacher influence is a measure of student alienation from, or disenchantment with, the institution, then educational administrators should investigate the possibilities of different types of class and school organization. Abolition, in whole or in part, of the feeling of disenchantment students have may be accomplished by a greater degree of student involvement in the teaching-learning process. Student involvement may imply radical changes in existing organizational patterns. The data point to the existence of a strong feeling of idealism. If this latent idealism, insofar as the school is concerned,

could be tapped by dynamic leadership and by changed organizational structures, some of the alienation or disenchantment students now have might be dissipated.

For Research. This study has touched upon a number of areas where additional research might prove interesting and rewarding.

The lack of differences among grade levels indicate that high school student attitudes have become fairly stable. A longitudinal study might show the extent to which changes do occur from one grade level to another. Coupled with longitudinal research should be an attempt to discover at what age and grade level attitudes become stable. Research of this kind should be preceded by the development of more refined instruments to measure student attitudes more precisely.

Student reaction to the girls' Occupational Aspiration Scale was satisfactory. Respondents appeared to have little difficulty in completing the test and the number of completed questionnaires indicated the test was not too difficult and did not pose a threat; however, more research should be undertaken to validate the instrument and test its reliability.

The lack of dissimilarity of teacher achievement orientation at the high school level poses a problem which might be investigated. Are the achievement orientations of elementary school teachers congruent and is the orientation related to student performance?

Results from numerous studies have shown that Canadian high school students tend to be conformists and conservatives. Studies of out-of-school adolescents are urgently needed to make comparisons between their attitudes and value orientations and those of the high school student.

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APPENDIX

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

MANITOBA HIGH SCHOOL STUDY

TEACHER'S QUESTIONNAIRE

Read each of the following statements: if you agree with the statement, CIRCLE the word "AGREE"; if you disagree with the statement, CIRCLE the word "Disagree".

- | | | |
|--|-------|----------|
| 1. Parents would be greatly upset if their son ended up doing factory labor. | Agree | Disagree |
| 2. All that most people today want out of life in the way of a career is a secure, not too difficult, job, with enough pay to afford a nice car and eventually a home of their own | Agree | Disagree |
| 3. When a man is born, the success he is going to have is already decided, so he might just as well accept it and not fight against it. | Agree | Disagree |
| 4. It's silly to put money into a car when the money could be used for an education or to start a business. | Agree | Disagree |
| 5. The best kind of job is one where people are part of the organization all working together, even if they don't get individual credit. | Agree | Disagree |
| 6. Even when people get married, they believe their main loyalty still belongs to their father and mother. | Agree | Disagree |
| 7. Education and learning are more important in determining a person's happiness than money and what it will buy. | Agree | Disagree |
| 8. When the time comes for a person to take a job, he should stay near his parents even if it means giving up a good job. | Agree | Disagree |
| 9. Planning only makes a person unhappy since plans hardly ever work out anyway. | Agree | Disagree |
| 10. With world conditions the way they are, the wise person lives for today and lets tomorrow take care of itself. | Agree | Disagree |
| 11. Nothing in life is worth the sacrifice of moving away from your parents. | Agree | Disagree |

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1. Sex. CHECK ONE.

- 1.....Female
2.....Male

2. Age. CHECK ONE.

- 1.....25 or under
2.....26 - 30
3.....31 - 35
4.....36 - 40
5.....41 - 45
6.....46 - 50
7.....51 - 55
8.....56 - 60
9.....61 - 65
10.....over 65

3. Education. Number of years of university training or its equivalent. CHECK ONE.

- 1.....one year

2.....two years

3.....three years

4.....four years

5.....five years

6.....six years

7.....seven years

8.....eight years

9.....nine years

4. Experience. Number of years total teaching experience. CHECK ONE.

1.....1 - 3 years

2.....4 - 6 years

3.....7 - 9 years

4.....10 - 12 years

5.....13 - 15 years

6.....16 - 18 years

7.....19 - 21 years

8.....22 - 24 years

9.....25 - 27 years

10.....28 or more years

5. Number of years of teaching experience in this school. CHECK ONE.

1.....1 - 3 years

2.....4 - 6 years

3.....7 - 9 years

4.....10 - 12 years

5.....13 - 15 years

6.....16 - 18 years

7.....19 - 21 years

8.....22 - 24 years

9.....25 - 27 years

10.....28 or more years

6. Number of years residence in this community. CHECK ONE.

1.....1 - 3 years

2.....4 - 6 years

3.....7 - 9 years

4.....10 - 12 years

5.....13 - 15 years

6.....16 - 18 years

7.....19 - 21 years

8.....22 - 24 years

9.....25 - 27 years

10.....28 or more years

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA
MANITOBA HIGH SCHOOL STUDY

BOY'S QUESTIONNAIRE

Name
(Last name) (Given names)

In what school did you write your Grade IX examinations?

.....
(Name of the School)

This questionnaire deals with your family background and your attitudes. ANSWER EACH QUESTION AS BEST YOU CAN.

The answers you give will be held in strict confidence. Place the completed questionnaire in the envelope and seal it so NO ONE in this school will see your answers but you. Work QUICKLY but CAREFULLY in giving your answers.

After the replies of all the students have been gathered, they will be studied by using an electronic computer. Your answers will be changed into a code for use in this machine. Once this code is used, your answers cannot be identified by name.

A. YOU AND YOUR FAMILY.

The questions in this section and the one following are questions of fact. Please try to give the correct answer.

1. What is your father's occupation? Be as specific as you can. For example: Sales clerk at Eatons, self-employed electrician, owns a store and employs four people. (If he is dead, write down what his occupation was.) 9

2. Does your mother have a job outside your home? CHECK ONE. 10

1.....full-time
2.....part-time
3.....no

3. What is your religion? CHECK ONE. 11

1.....Protestant
2.....Catholic
3.....Jewish
4.....Mennonite
5.....Greek Orthodox
6.....other (Write in)

4. Where were you born? CHECK ONE. 12

1.....in this province
2.....in this country but not in this province
3.....outside Canada

5. Where was your father born? CHECK ONE. 13

1.....in this province
2.....in this country but not in this province
3.....outside Canada

6. Where was your mother born? CHECK ONE. 14

1.....in this province

2.....in this country but not in this province

3.....outside Canada

7. How long have you lived in this community? CHECK ONE. 15

1.....less than 2 years
2.....2 - 3 years
3.....4 - 5 years
4.....6 - 7 years
5.....8 - 9 years
6.....10 - 11 years
7.....12 - 13 years
8.....14 - 15 years
9.....more than 15 years

8. How long have you attended this school? CHECK ONE. 16

1.....started this year
2.....1 year
3.....2 years
4.....3 years
5.....4 years
6.....5 years
7.....6 years
8.....7 years
9.....8 years or more

9. What grade are you in? CHECK ONE. 17

1.....Grade 10
2.....Grade 11
3.....Grade 12

10. How old are you? Please write in. 18 19

.....yearsmonths

B. YOU AND YOUR HOME.

In the following questions, mark your answer by putting a **CIRCLE** in the right place. For example, in the question, "Does your family own a car?" draw a circle around **YES** if your family has a car, and around **NO** if your family hasn't a car. Be sure to answer all questions. **20 21**

- | | | |
|--|-----|----|
| 1. Does your family own a car? | Yes | No |
| 2. Does your family have a garage or carport? | Yes | No |
| 3. Did your father go to high school? | Yes | No |
| 4. Did your mother go to high school? | Yes | No |
| 5. Did your father go to university? | Yes | No |
| 6. Did your mother go to university? | Yes | No |
| 7. Is there a writing desk in your home? | Yes | No |
| 8. Does your family have a hi-fi record player? | Yes | No |
| 9. Does your family own a piano? | Yes | No |
| 10. Does your family get a daily newspaper? | Yes | No |
| 11. Do you have your own room at home? | Yes | No |
| 12. Does your family own its own home? | Yes | No |
| 13. Is there an encyclopedia in your home? | Yes | No |
| 14. Does your family have more than 100 hard covered books? (e.g. 4 shelves 3 feet long) | Yes | No |
| 15. Did your parents borrow any books from the library last year? | Yes | No |
| 16. Does your family leave town each year for a holiday? | Yes | No |
| 17. Do you belong to any club where you have to pay fees? | Yes | No |
| 18. Does your mother belong to any clubs or organizations such as study, church, art, or social clubs? | Yes | No |
| 19. Does your family belong to any clubs or organizations? | Yes | No |
| 20. Have you ever had lessons in music, dancing, art, swimming, etc., outside of school? | Yes | No |

C. YOU AND YOUR EDUCATION.

1. What program are you taking in school? **CHECK ONE. 22**

- 1..... matriculation
2..... general
3..... commercial
4..... high school leaving
5..... terminal
6..... vocational
7..... not yet decided

2. How much time on the average do you spend doing home-work outside of school? **CHECK ONE. 23**

- 1..... none, or almost none
2..... less than ½ hour a day
3..... about ½ hour a day
4..... about 1 hour a day
5..... about 1½ hours a day
6..... about 2 hours a day

- 7..... about 3 hours a day

- 8..... more than 3 hours a day

3. If school were not compulsory, and you alone could make the decision, would you . . . **CHECK ONE. 24**

- 1..... stay in school until graduation?

- 2..... leave school before graduation?

- 3..... don't know.

4. Suppose you had an extra hour in school and you could either take some course of your own choosing, or use it for athletics or some other activity, or use it for study. How would you use it? **CHECK ONE. 25**

- 1..... take another school course

- 2..... spend time on games or athletics

- 3..... join a club

- 4..... use the time to study

- 5..... do something else

5. What **TWO** reasons would you pick from this list to explain why you are staying in school? **PLACE THE NUMERALS 1 AND 2 IN THE SPACE IN FRONT OF YOUR SELECTIONS. 26 27**

- 1..... I like school very much

- 2..... I want a general education

- 3..... I'm training for a job

- 4..... I need high school to get into university

- 5..... my parents insist I go to school

- 6..... all my friends are going to school

- 7..... I enjoy the sports activities

- 8..... I enjoy the social life

- 9..... I'm too young to go out and start working

- 10..... other reasons (write in)

6. If you are planning on attending college or university after high school, which of the following do you think is most important? **CHECK ONE. 28**

- 1..... the stimulation of new ideas

- 2..... preparation for making a living

- 3..... campus activities and social life

- 4..... new friends who share my interests

7. If you are planning on attending college or university after high school, which will you most likely study? **CHECK ONE. 29**

- 1..... a liberal arts program

- 2..... a science program

- 3..... education (teacher training)

- 4..... commerce

- 5..... engineering

- 6..... agriculture

- 7..... medicine

- 8..... law

- 9..... undecided

- 10..... other (write in)

Read these questions carefully. If you have ANY feelings at all that you are more like one person than the other, please place a check mark in the appropriate space.

8. Two students were talking about how they felt about the school they were attending. The first student said he usually felt a kind of pride in the school and he had a sense of personal responsibility for helping the teachers get their job done. The second student said he felt responsible chiefly for his own courses, that he left worrying about bigger problems to the people such as the principal and teachers whose job it was to worry about them.

If you had to compare yourself with one of these students, which one would you say you'd most nearly be like? CHECK ONE. **30**

- 1.....very much like the first student
- 2.....somewhat like the first student
- 3.....very much like the second student
- 4.....somewhat like the second student
- 5.....impossible to decide

9. Two students were discussing their reputations in the school. The first one said he thought it was important for a person to watch what he does in public and to associate with a respectable class of people. The second student said he didn't pay too much attention to what other people think of him, that he does what he wants to do and doesn't worry too much.

If you had to compare yourself with one of these students, which one would you say you'd most nearly be like. CHECK ONE. **31**

- 1.....very much like the first student
- 2.....somewhat like the first student
- 3.....very much like the second student
- 4.....somewhat like the second student
- 5.....impossible to decide

10. Two students were attending the same high school. Both felt they couldn't get along with their teachers and they both disliked school very much. Both of them were planning to quit school as soon as they could find suitable jobs. The first student said that since things were so bad he wasn't going out of his way to work hard, that he was going to do as little as possible. The second student said that he was continuing to work as hard as he usually did, that he felt he should do a full day's work.

If you had to compare yourself with one of these students, which one would you say you'd most nearly be like. CHECK ONE. **32**

- 1.....very much like the first student
- 2.....somewhat like the first student
- 3.....very much like the second student
- 4.....somewhat like the second student
- 5.....impossible to decide

Many of the following questions are matters of OPINION; there are no right or wrong answers. We simply want to compare the replies made by students in this school with replies made by students in other schools.

D. YOU AND YOUR ASSOCIATES.

1. Do you get money from your parents? CHECK ONE. **33**

- 1.....no
 - 2.....I get money when I need some
 - 3.....I get a regular allowance
- (How much per week?.....) **34**

2. In your life which is more important to you? CHECK ONE. **35**

- 1.....school chums
- 2.....relatives (uncles, aunts, cousins)
- 3.....social clubs
- 4.....work groups
- 5.....church groups
- 6.....immediate family (father, mother, brothers, sisters)

3. What TWO persons have had the most influence in keeping you in school? PLACE THE NUMERALS 1 AND 2 IN THE SPACES AT THE FRONT OF YOUR SELECTIONS. **36 37**

- 1.....father
- 2.....mother
- 3.....sister
- 4.....brother
- 5.....teacher or principal
- 6.....minister, priest or rabbi
- 7.....boy friend or girl friend
- 8.....aunt or uncle
- 9.....some other person

4. Suppose you had always wanted to belong to a particular club or group in the school and finally you were asked to join. Then you found your parents did not approve of the group. What would you do? CHECK ONE. **38**

- 1.....definitely join anyway
- 2.....probably join
- 3.....probably not join
- 4.....definitely not join

5. Suppose your parents and teachers approved of the group but by joining you would break with your closest friend who wasn't asked to join. What would you do? CHECK ONE. **39**

- 1.....definitely join anyway
- 2.....probably join
- 3.....probably not join
- 4.....definitely not join

6. Which of these would be hardest to take — your parents' disapproval, your teachers' disapproval, or breaking with a friend? CHECK ONE. **40**

- 1.....parents' disapproval
- 2.....teachers' disapproval
- 3.....breaking with a friend

7. How much cheating or cribbing goes on in your classroom during examinations? CHECK ONE. **41**

- 1.....none at all
- 2.....very little
- 3.....quite a lot
- 4.....a great deal
- 5.....don't know

8. Would you report to a teacher any student that you knew to be cheating in an examination? CHECK ONE. 42

1.....yes
2.....no
3.....not if he were my friend
4.....undecided

9. Would you hand in an essay or an assignment that your friend had done for you as your own? CHECK ONE. 43

1.....yes
2.....no

10. Two students were talking about their classmates. The first student said he always tried to be friendly and to fit in with the class since he didn't like being left out and he enjoyed being with people. The second student said he believed in being friendly too, but his reason was different. He said if you were friendly with people you would be able to get more things done the way you wanted, you'd be more likely to get better grades from teachers and less likely to have people against you. If you had to compare yourself to one of these students, which one would you say you'd most nearly be like. CHECK ONE. 44

1.....very much like the first student
2.....somewhat like the first student
3.....very much like the second student
4.....somewhat like the second student
5.....impossible to decide

11. Among the crowd you go around with, which of the things listed below are important in order to be popular with the group? PLACE THE NUMERALS 1, 2, AND 3 IN THE SPACES AT THE FRONT OF YOUR SELECTIONS. 45 46 47

1.....be a good dancer
2.....have sharp clothes
3.....have a good personality
4.....be athletic
5.....be good at stirring up excitement
6.....have money
7.....drinking
8.....smoking
9.....being up on cars
10.....knowing what's going on in the world of popular singers, movie and TV stars

E. YOU AND THE STUDENTS' COUNCIL

1. Do you hold a position on the Students' Council? CHECK ONE. 48

1.....no
2.....president
3.....vice-president
4.....secretary
5.....treasurer
6.....council representative
7.....sports representative
8.....social representative
9.....any other position

2. Do you hold a position in your home room executive? CHECK ONE. 49

1.....no
2.....room president
3.....room vice-president
4.....room secretary
5.....room treasurer
6.....council representative
7.....sports representative
8.....social representative
9.....any other position

The next five statements have been made by students about the way they feel about the students' council. How do you feel about the students' council? Please indicate how you feel by replying to these questions.

3. I don't think students' council members care much what students like me think. CHECK ONE. 50

1.....agree strongly
2.....agree somewhat
3.....agree slightly
4.....disagree slightly
5.....disagree somewhat
6.....disagree strongly

4. Voting is the only way students like me can have any say about how the students' council runs things. CHECK ONE. 51

1.....agree strongly
2.....agree somewhat
3.....agree slightly
4.....disagree slightly
5.....disagree somewhat
6.....disagree strongly

5. Students like me don't have any say about what the students' council does. CHECK ONE. 52

1.....agree strongly
2.....agree somewhat
3.....agree slightly
4.....disagree slightly
5.....disagree somewhat
6.....disagree strongly

6. Sometimes the students' council activities and business seem so complicated that a student like me can't really understand what's going on. CHECK ONE. 53

1.....agree strongly
2.....agree somewhat
3.....agree slightly
4.....disagree slightly
5.....disagree somewhat
6.....disagree strongly

7. The way students vote is the main thing that decides how the students' council runs things in this school. CHECK ONE. **54**

- 1.....agree strongly
- 2.....agree somewhat
- 3.....agree slightly
- 4.....disagree slightly
- 5.....disagree somewhat
- 6.....disagree strongly

F. YOU AND YOUR FUTURE

1. Two students were discussing their outlook on life. The first student said he thought the most important thing in life was for a person to stand up for certain principles and beliefs and be prepared to make sacrifices for them if necessary. The second student said he thought the most important thing in life was for a person to find as much happiness and satisfaction as possible, to get something out of living.

If you had to compare yourself with one of these students, which one would you say you'd most nearly be like? CHECK ONE. **55**

- 1.....very much like the first student
- 2.....somewhat like the first student
- 3.....very much like the second student
- 4.....somewhat like the second student
- 5.....impossible to decide

2. Many people have different ideas about what the ideal job would be like. Here is a list of things that people have said they would like in a job. What is the ONE thing on the list that you would most like in a job? PLACE THE NUMERAL 1 IN THE SPACE AT THE FRONT OF THE ONE YOU SELECT. What is the SECOND thing on the list that you would most like in a job? PLACE THE NUMERAL 2 IN THE SPACE AT THE FRONT OF THE ONE YOU SELECT. **56 57**

- 1.....the promise of a secure future
- 2.....a chance to do what I am really good at
- 3.....a chance to organize things the way I like
- 4.....friendly, easy-going people to work with
- 5.....not too much pressure on me to get things done
- 6.....a chance to get ahead if I work hard
- 7.....a chance to help others
- 8.....plenty of benefits like vacations and medical care

3. Here is another list. This one has to do with things that people would like to get out of a job. What is the ONE thing you would most like to get out of a job? PLACE THE NUMERAL 1 IN THE SPACE AT THE FRONT OF THE ONE YOU SELECT. What is the SECOND thing on the list that you would most like to get out of a job? PLACE THE NUMERAL 2 IN THE SPACE AT THE FRONT OF THE ONE YOU SELECT. **58 59**

- 1.....the respect of others
- 2.....money
- 3.....a sense of accomplishment
- 4.....a sense of security
- 5.....a feeling of doing something worthwhile
- 6.....a feeling of independence

4. Getting ahead in life means different things to different people. Here is a list of things people have in mind when they say they want to get ahead in life. Which ONE of these things are you most interested in when it comes to getting ahead? PLACE THE NUMERAL 1 IN THE SPACE AT THE FRONT OF THE ONE YOU SELECT. What is the SECOND thing on the list that you are most interested in when it comes to getting ahead? PLACE THE NUMERAL 2 IN THE SPACE AT THE FRONT OF THE ONE YOU SELECT. **60 61**

- 1.....a higher standing in the community
- 2.....greater ability to influence others
- 3.....a larger income
- 4.....greater ability to help others
- 5.....advancement in my job or career
- 6.....more security for myself and family

5. What TWO things on this list, do you think, really get a person ahead fastest today? PLACE THE NUMERALS 1 AND 2 IN THE SPACE AT THE FRONT OF YOUR SELECTIONS. **62 63**

- 1.....hard work
- 2.....pleasant personality
- 3.....brains
- 4.....knowing the right people
- 5.....good luck
- 6.....being a good politician
- 7.....having a good family background

6. Of the jobs listed in this question, which is the best one you are really sure you can get when your schooling is over? CHECK ONE.

- 1.....lawyer
- 2.....welfare worker for a city government
- 3.....a member of the House of Commons
- 4.....corporal in the army
- 5.....Supreme Court Justice
- 6.....night watchman
- 7.....sociologist
- 8.....policeman
- 9.....district agricultural representative
- 10.....filling station attendant

7. Of the jobs listed in this question, which one would you choose if you were free to choose any one of them you wished when your schooling is over? CHECK ONE.

- 1.....director of a large corporation
- 2.....undertaker
- 3.....banker
- 4.....machine operator in a factory
- 5.....physician (doctor)
- 6.....clothes presser in a laundry
- 7.....accountant for a large business
- 8.....railroad conductor
- 9.....railroad engineer
- 10.....singer in a night club

8. Of the jobs listed in this question, which is the best one you are really sure you can get when your schooling is over? CHECK ONE.

- 1.....nuclear physicist
- 2.....reporter for a daily newspaper
- 3.....district judge
- 4.....barber
- 5.....provincial premier
- 6.....soda fountain clerk
- 7.....biologist
- 8.....mail carrier
- 9.....official of an international labor union
- 10.....farm hand

9. Of the jobs listed in this question, which one would you choose if you were free to choose any one of them you wished when your schooling is over? CHECK ONE.

- 1.....psychologist
- 2.....manager of a small store in a city
- 3.....head of a department in a provincial government
- 4.....clerk in a store
- 5.....cabinet member in the federal government
- 6.....janitor
- 7.....musician in a symphony orchestra
- 8.....carpenter
- 9.....radio announcer
- 10.....coal miner

10. Of the jobs listed in this questions, which is the best one you are really sure you can get by the time you are 30 years old? CHECK ONE.

- 1.....civil engineer
- 2.....bookkeeper
- 3.....minister, priest or rabbi
- 4.....city bus driver
- 5.....diplomat in the Canadian Foreign Service
- 6.....farm renter
- 7.....author of novels
- 8.....plumber
- 9.....newspaper columnist
- 10.....taxi driver

11. Of the jobs listed in this question, which one would you choose to have when you are 30 years old, if you were free to have any one of them you wished? CHECK ONE.

- 1.....airline pilot
- 2.....insurance agent
- 3.....architect
- 4.....milk route man
- 5.....mayor of a large city
- 6.....garbage collector
- 7.....captain in the army
- 8.....garage mechanic

9.....owner-operator of a machine shop

10.....railroad section hand

12. Of the jobs listed in this question, which is the best one you are really sure you can get by the time you are 30 years old? CHECK ONE.

- 1.....artist who paints pictures that are exhibited in galleries
- 2.....travelling salesman for a wholesale concern
- 3.....chemist
- 4.....truck driver
- 5.....college professor
- 6.....street sweeper
- 7.....building contractor
- 8.....local official of a labor union
- 9.....electrician
- 10.....restaurant waiter

13. Of the jobs listed in this question, which one would you choose to have when you are 30 years old, if you were free to have any of them you wished? CHECK ONE. 64 65

- 1.....owner of a factory that employs about 100 people
- 2.....playground director
- 3.....dentist
- 4.....lumberjack
- 5.....scientist
- 6.....shoeshiner
- 7.....public school teacher
- 8.....owner-operator of a lunch stand
- 9.....trained machinist
- 10.....dockworker

G. YOU AND YOUR LEISURE TIME.

1. How much time do you spend in extracurricular activities? (These are activities which are connected with the school but they are not part of the regular program, i.e., drama club, football, curling, choir, etc.) CHECK ONE. 66

- 1.....none
- 2.....about ½ hour a week
- 3.....about 1 hour a week
- 4.....about 2 hours a week
- 5.....about 3 hours a week
- 6.....about 4 hours a week
- 7.....about 5 hours a week
- 8.....about 6 hours a week
- 9.....more than 6 hours a week

2. About how many evenings a week on the average do you spend at home? CIRCLE the number of evenings. 67

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. About how many evenings a week on the average do you spend out with other fellows in your age group? CIRCLE the number of evenings. 68

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

69

- 70

- 71

- 72

- 73

74

75 76

- If you have time, please check to make certain that you have answered all the questions. Again, thanks for your assistance.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA
MANITOBA HIGH SCHOOL STUDY

GIRL'S QUESTIONNAIRE

Name
(Last name) (Given names)

In what school did you write your Grade IX examinations?

.....
(Name of the School)

This questionnaire deals with your family background and your attitudes. ANSWER EACH QUESTION AS BEST YOU CAN.

The answers you give will be held in strict confidence. Place the completed questionnaire in the envelope and seal it so NO ONE in this school will see your answers but you. Work QUICKLY but CAREFULLY in giving your answers.

After the replies of all the students have been gathered, they will be studied by using an electronic computer. Your answers will be changed into a code for use in this machine. Once this code is used, your answers cannot be identified by name.

A. YOU AND YOUR FAMILY.

The questions in this section and the one following are questions of fact. Please try to give the correct answer.

1. What is your father's occupation? Be as specific as you can. For example: Sales clerk at Eatons, self-employed electrician, owns a store and employs four people. (If he is dead, write down what his occupation was.) 9

2. Does your mother have a job outside your home? CHECK ONE. 10

1.....full-time
2.....part-time
3.....no

3. What is your religion? CHECK ONE. 11

1.....Protestant
2.....Catholic
3.....Jewish
4.....Mennonite
5.....Greek Orthodox
6.....other (Write in)

4. Where were you born? CHECK ONE. 12

1.....in this province
2.....in this country but not in this province
3.....outside Canada

5. Where was your father born? CHECK ONE. 13

1.....in this province
2.....in this country but not in this province
3.....outside Canada

6. Where was your mother born? CHECK ONE. 14

1.....in this province

2.....in this country but not in this province

3.....outside Canada

7. How long have you lived in this community? CHECK ONE. 15

1.....less than 2 years
2.....2 - 3 years
3.....4 - 5 years
4.....6 - 7 years
5.....8 - 9 years
6.....10 - 11 years
7.....12 - 13 years
8.....14 - 15 years
9.....more than 15 years

8. How long have you attended this school? CHECK ONE. 16

1.....started this year
2.....1 year
3.....2 years
4.....3 years
5.....4 years
6.....5 years
7.....6 years
8.....7 years
9.....8 years or more

9. What grade are you in? CHECK ONE. 17

1.....Grade 10
2.....Grade 11
3.....Grade 12

10. How old are you? Please write in. 18 19
.....yearsmonths

B. YOU AND YOUR HOME.

In the following questions, mark your answer by putting a CIRCLE in the right place. For example, in the question, "Does your family own a car?" draw a circle around YES if your family has a car, and around NO if your family hasn't a car. Be sure to answer all questions. 20 21

- | | | |
|--|-----|----|
| 1. Does your family own a car? | Yes | No |
| 2. Does your family have a garage or carport? | Yes | No |
| 3. Did your father go to high school? | Yes | No |
| 4. Did your mother go to high school? | Yes | No |
| 5. Did your father go to university? | Yes | No |
| 6. Did your mother go to university? | Yes | No |
| 7. Is there a writing desk in your home? | Yes | No |
| 8. Does your family have a hi-fi record player? | Yes | No |
| 9. Does your family own a piano? | Yes | No |
| 10. Does your family get a daily newspaper? | Yes | No |
| 11. Do you have your own room at home? | Yes | No |
| 12. Does your family own its own home? | Yes | No |
| 13. Is there an encyclopedia in your home? | Yes | No |
| 14. Does your family have more than 100 hard covered books? (e.g. 4 shelves 3 feet long) | Yes | No |
| 15. Did your parents borrow any books from the library last year? | Yes | No |
| 16. Does your family leave town each year for a holiday? | Yes | No |
| 17. Do you belong to any club where you have to pay fees? | Yes | No |
| 18. Does your mother belong to any clubs or organizations such as study, church, art, or social clubs? | Yes | No |
| 19. Does your family belong to any clubs or organizations? | Yes | No |
| 20. Have you ever had lessons in music, dancing, art, swimming, etc., outside of school? | Yes | No |

C. YOU AND YOUR EDUCATION.

1. What program are you taking in school? CHECK ONE. 22

- | | |
|--------|---------------------|
| 1..... | matriculation |
| 2..... | general |
| 3..... | commercial |
| 4..... | high school leaving |
| 5..... | terminal |
| 6..... | vocational |
| 7..... | not yet decided |

2. How much time on the average do you spend doing home-work outside of school? CHECK ONE. 23

- | | |
|--------|------------------------|
| 1..... | none, or almost none |
| 2..... | less than ½ hour a day |
| 3..... | about ½ hour a day |
| 4..... | about 1 hour a day |
| 5..... | about 1½ hours a day |
| 6..... | about 2 hours a day |

7.....about 3 hours a day

8.....more than 3 hours a day

3. If school were not compulsory, and you alone could make the decision, would you . . . CHECK ONE. 24

1.....stay in school until graduation?

2.....leave school before graduation?

3.....don't know.

4. Suppose you had an extra hour in school and you could either take some course of your own choosing, or use it for athletics or some other activity, or use it for study. How would you use it? CHECK ONE. 25

1.....take another school course

2.....spend time on games or athletics

3.....join a club

4.....use the time to study

5.....do something else

5. What TWO reasons would you pick from this list to explain why you are staying in school? PLACE THE NUMERALS 1 AND 2 IN THE SPACE IN FRONT OF YOUR SELECTIONS. 26 27

1.....I like school very much

2.....I want a general education

3.....I'm training for a job

4.....I need high school to get into university

5.....my parents insist I go to school

6.....all my friends are going to school

7.....I enjoy the sports activities

8.....I enjoy the social life

9.....I'm too young to go out and start working

10.....other reasons (write in)

6. If you are planning on attending college or university after high school, which of the following do you think is most important? CHECK ONE. 28

1.....the stimulation of new ideas

2.....preparation for making a living

3.....campus activities and social life

4.....new friends who share my interests

7. If you are planning on attending college or university after high school, which will you most likely study? CHECK ONE. 29

1.....a liberal arts program

2.....a science program

3.....education (teacher training)

4.....commerce

5.....engineering

6.....agriculture

7.....medicine

8.....law

9.....undecided

10.....other (write in)

Read these questions carefully. If you have ANY feelings at all that you are more like one person than the other, please place a check mark in the appropriate space.

8. Two students were talking about how they felt about the school they were attending. The first student said he usually felt a kind of pride in the school and he had a sense of personal responsibility for helping the teachers get their job done. The second student said he felt responsible chiefly for his own courses, that he left worrying about bigger problems to the people such as the principal and teachers whose job it was to worry about them.

If you had to compare yourself with one of these students, which one would you say you'd most nearly be like? CHECK ONE.

- 1.....very much like the first student
- 2.....somewhat like the first student
- 3.....very much like the second student
- 4.....somewhat like the second student
- 5.....impossible to decide

30

9. Two students were discussing their reputations in the school. The first one said he thought it was important for a person to watch what he does in public and to associate with a respectable class of people. The second student said he didn't pay too much attention to what other people think of him, that he does what he wants to do and doesn't worry too much.

If you had to compare yourself with one of these students, which one would you say you'd most nearly be like. CHECK ONE.

- 1.....very much like the first student
- 2.....somewhat like the first student
- 3.....very much like the second student
- 4.....somewhat like the second student
- 5..... impossible to decide

31

10. Two students were attending the same high school. Both felt they couldn't get along with their teachers and they both disliked school very much. Both of them were planning to quit school as soon as they could find suitable jobs. The first student said that since things were so bad he wasn't going out of his way to work hard, that he was going to do as little as possible. The second student said that he was continuing to work as hard as he usually did, that he felt he should do a full day's work.

If you had to compare yourself with one of these students, which one would you say you'd most nearly be like. CHECK ONE.

- 1.....very much like the first student
- 2.....somewhat like the first student
- 3.....very much like the second student
- 4.....somewhat like the second student
- 5.....impossible to decide

32

Many of the following questions are matters of OPINION; there are no right or wrong answers. We simply want to compare the replies made by students in this school with replies made by students in other schools.

D. YOU AND YOUR ASSOCIATES.

1. Do you get money from your parents? CHECK ONE. 33

- 1.....no
- 2.....I get money when I need some
- 3.....I get a regular allowance

(How much per week?.....) 34

2. In your life which is more important to you? CHECK ONE. 35

- 1.....school chums
- 2.....relatives (uncles, aunts, cousins)
- 3.....social clubs
- 4.....work groups
- 5.....church groups
- 6.....immediate family (father, mother, brothers, sisters)

3. What TWO persons have had the most influence in keeping you in school? PLACE THE NUMERALS 1 AND 2 IN THE SPACES AT THE FRONT OF YOUR SELECTIONS. 36 37

- 1.....father
- 2.....mother
- 3.....sister
- 4.....brother
- 5.....teacher or principal
- 6.....minister, priest or rabbi
- 7.....boy friend or girl friend
- 8.....aunt or uncle
- 9.....some other person

4. Suppose you had always wanted to belong to a particular club or group in the school and finally you were asked to join. Then you found your parents did not approve of the group. What would you do? CHECK ONE. 38

- 1.....definitely join anyway
- 2.....probably join
- 3.....probably not join
- 4.....definitely not join

5. Suppose your parents and teachers approved of the group but by joining you would break with your closest friend who wasn't asked to join. What would you do? CHECK ONE. 39

- 1.....definitely join anyway
- 2.....probably join
- 3.....probably not join
- 4.....definitely not join

6. Which of these would be hardest to take — your parents' disapproval, your teachers' disapproval, or breaking with a friend? CHECK ONE. 40

- 1.....parents' disapproval
- 2.....teachers' disapproval
- 3.....breaking with a friend

7. How much cheating or cribbing goes on in your classroom during examinations? CHECK ONE. 41

- 1.....none at all
- 2.....very little
- 3.....quite a lot
- 4.....a great deal
- 5.....don't know

8. Would you report to a teacher any student that you knew to be cheating in an examination? CHECK ONE. 42

1.....yes

2.....no

3.....not if he were my friend

4.....undecided

9. Would you hand in an essay or an assignment that your friend had done for you as your own? CHECK ONE. 43

1.....yes

2.....no

10. Two students were talking about their classmates. The first student said he always tried to be friendly and to fit in with the class since he didn't like being left out and he enjoyed being with people. The second student said he believed in being friendly too, but his reason was different. He said if you were friendly with people you would be able to get more things done the way you wanted, you'd be more likely to get better grades from teachers and less likely to have people against you.

If you had to compare yourself to one of these students, which one would you say you'd most nearly be like. CHECK ONE. 44

1.....very much like the first student

2.....somewhat like the first student

3.....very much like the second student

4.....somewhat like the second student

5.....impossible to decide

11. Among the crowd you go around with, which of the things listed below are important in order to be popular with the group? PLACE THE NUMERALS 1, 2, AND 3 IN THE SPACES AT THE FRONT OF YOUR SELECTIONS. 45 46 47

1.....be a good dancer

2.....have sharp clothes

3.....have a good personality

4.....be athletic

5.....be good at stirring up excitement

6.....have money

7.....drinking

8.....smoking

9.....being up on cars

10.....knowing what's going on in the world of popular singers, movie and TV stars

E. YOU AND THE STUDENTS' COUNCIL

1. Do you hold a position on the Students' Council? CHECK ONE. 48

1.....no

2.....president

3.....vice-president

4.....secretary

5.....treasurer

6.....council representative

7.....sports representative

8.....social representative

9.....any other position

2. Do you hold a position in your home room executive? CHECK ONE. 49

1.....no

2.....room president

3.....room vice-president

4.....room secretary

5.....room treasurer

6.....council representative

7.....sports representative

8.....social representative

9.....any other position

The next five statements have been made by students about the way they feel about the students' council. How do you feel about the students' council? Please indicate how you feel by replying to these questions.

3. I don't think students' council members care much what students like me think. CHECK ONE. 50

1.....agree strongly

2.....agree somewhat

3.....agree slightly

4.....disagree slightly

5.....disagree somewhat

6.....disagree strongly

4. Voting is the only way students like me can have any say about how the students' council runs things. CHECK ONE. 51

1.....agree strongly

2.....agree somewhat

3.....agree slightly

4.....disagree slightly

5.....disagree somewhat

6.....disagree strongly

5. Students like me don't have any say about what the students' council does. CHECK ONE. 52

1.....agree strongly

2.....agree somewhat

3.....agree slightly

4.....disagree slightly

5.....disagree somewhat

6.....disagree strongly

6. Sometimes the students' council activities and business seem so complicated that a student like me can't really understand what's going on. CHECK ONE. 53

1.....agree strongly

2.....agree somewhat

3.....agree slightly

4.....disagree slightly

5.....disagree somewhat

6.....disagree strongly

7. The way students vote is the main thing that decides how the students' council runs things in this school. CHECK ONE. **54**

- 1.....agree strongly
- 2.....agree somewhat
- 3.....agree slightly
- 4.....disagree slightly
- 5.....disagree somewhat
- 6.....disagree strongly

F. YOU AND YOUR FUTURE

1. Two students were discussing their outlook on life. The first student said he thought the most important thing in life was for a person to stand up for certain principles and beliefs and be prepared to make sacrifices for them if necessary. The second student said he thought the most important thing in life was for a person to find as much happiness and satisfaction as possible, to get something out of living.

If you had to compare yourself with one of these students, which one would you say you'd most nearly be like? CHECK ONE. **55**

- 1.....very much like the first student
- 2.....somewhat like the first student
- 3.....very much like the second student
- 4.....somewhat like the second student
- 5.....impossible to decide

2. Many people have different ideas about what the ideal job would be like. Here is a list of things that people have said they would like in a job. What is the ONE thing on the list that you would most like in a job? PLACE THE NUMERAL 1 IN THE SPACE AT THE FRONT OF THE ONE YOU SELECT. What is the SECOND thing on the list that you would most like in a job? PLACE THE NUMERAL 2 IN THE SPACE AT THE FRONT OF THE ONE YOU SELECT. **56 57**

- 1.....the promise of a secure future
- 2.....a chance to do what I am really good at
- 3.....a chance to organize things the way I like
- 4.....friendly, easy-going people to work with
- 5.....not too much pressure on me to get things done
- 6.....a chance to get ahead if I work hard
- 7.....a chance to help others
- 8.....plenty of benefits like vacations and medical care

3. Here is another list. This one has to do with things that people would like to get out of a job. What is the ONE thing you would most like to get out of a job? PLACE THE NUMERAL 1 IN THE SPACE AT THE FRONT OF THE ONE YOU SELECT. What is the SECOND thing on the list that you would most like to get out of a job? PLACE THE NUMERAL 2 IN THE SPACE AT THE FRONT OF THE ONE YOU SELECT. **58 59**

- 1.....the respect of others
- 2.....money
- 3.....a sense of accomplishment
- 4.....a sense of security
- 5.....a feeling of doing something worthwhile
- 6.....a feeling of independence

4. Getting ahead in life means different things to different people. Here is a list of things people have in mind when they say they want to get ahead in life. Which ONE of these things are you most interested in when it comes to getting ahead? PLACE THE NUMERAL 1 IN THE SPACE AT THE FRONT OF THE ONE YOU SELECT. What is the SECOND thing on the list that you are most interested in when it comes to getting ahead? PLACE THE NUMERAL 2 IN THE SPACE AT THE FRONT OF THE ONE YOU SELECT. **60 61**

- 1.....a higher standing in the community
- 2.....greater ability to influence others
- 3.....a larger income
- 4.....greater ability to help others
- 5.....advancement in my job or career
- 6.....more security for myself and family

5. What TWO things on this list, do you think, really get a person ahead fastest today? PLACE THE NUMERALS 1 AND 2 IN THE SPACE AT THE FRONT OF YOUR SELECTIONS. **62 63**

- 1.....hard work
- 2.....pleasant personality
- 3.....brains
- 4.....knowing the right people
- 5.....good luck
- 6.....being a politician
- 7.....having a good family background

6. Of the jobs listed in this question, which is the best one you are really sure you can get when your schooling is over? CHECK ONE.

- 1.....lawyer
- 2.....commercial artist
- 3.....Member of Parliament
- 4.....telephone operator
- 5.....Supreme Court Justice
- 6.....household maid
- 7.....dietitian
- 8.....photographer
- 9.....stenographer
- 10.....dressmaker

7. Of the jobs listed in this question, which one would you choose if you were free to choose any one of them you wished when your schooling is over? CHECK ONE.

- 1.....chemist
- 2.....office clerk
- 3.....journalist
- 4.....milliner (hat-maker)
- 5.....doctor
- 6.....clothes presser in a laundry
- 7.....librarian
- 8.....cashier in a retail store
- 9.....typist
- 10.....bake shop worker

- 10.....taxi driver
8. Of the jobs listed in this question, which is the best one you are really sure you can get when your schooling is over? CHECK ONE.

- 1.....statistician
- 2.....school teacher
- 3.....juvenile court judge
- 4.....practical nurse
- 5.....provincial premier
- 6.....janitor
- 7.....biologist
- 8.....postmistress
- 9.....dental assistant
- 10.....hotel maid

9. Of the jobs listed in this question, which one would you choose if you were free to choose any one of them you wished when your schooling is over? CHECK ONE.

- 1.....psychologist
- 2.....comptometer operator
- 3.....director of adult education for the province
- 4.....optician
- 5.....university professor
- 6.....cleaning woman
- 7.....musician in a symphony orchestra
- 8.....packer in a factory
- 9.....laboratory technician
- 10.....seamstress

10. Of the jobs listed in this questions, which is the best one you are really sure you can have by the time you are 30 years old? CHECK ONE.

- 1.....social welfare worker
- 2.....bookkeeper
- 3.....inspector in a textile factory
- 4.....photography shop employee
- 5.....Canadian representative at the United Nations
- 6.....nurse in training
- 7.....author of novels
- 8.....worker in an elcetrical factory
- 9.....newspaper columnist
- 10.....taxi driver

11. Of the jobs listed in this question, which one would you choose to have when you are 30 years old, if you were free to have any one of them you wished? CHECK ONE.

- 1.....airline stewardess
- 2.....tailoress
- 3.....interior decorator
- 4.....textile finisher
- 5.....mayor of a large city
- 6.....baby-sitter
- 7.....music teacher
- 8.....worker in a hat and cap factory

- 9.....owner-publisher of a weekly newspaper

- 10.....cook

12. Of the jobs listed in this question, which is the best one you are really sure you can have by the time you are 30 years old? CHECK ONE.

- 1.....artist
- 2.....window decorator
- 3.....physicist
- 4.....canvasser
- 5.....metallurgist
- 6.....glove-maker
- 7.....graduate nurse
- 8.....elevator operator
- 9.....forewoman in a factory
- 10.....restaurant waitress

13. Of the jobs listed in this question, which one would you choose to have when you are 30 years old, if you were free to have any of them you wished? CHECK ONE. 64 65

- 1.....actress
- 2.....playground director
- 3.....chiropractor
- 4.....bookbinder
- 5.....scientist
- 6.....fish canner
- 7.....newspaper editor
- 8.....jeweller
- 9.....kindergarten teacher
- 10.....basket-maker

G. YOU AND YOUR LEISURE TIME.

1. How much time do you spend in extracurricular activiütes? (These are activities which are connected with the school but they are not part of the program, i.e., drama club, cheer leading, curling, choir, etc.) CHECK ONE. 66

- 1.....none
- 2.....about ½ hour a week
- 3.....about 1 hour a week
- 4.....about 2 hours a week
- 5.....about 3 hours a week
- 6.....about 4 hours a week
- 7.....about 5 hours a week
- 8.....about 6 hours a week
- 9.....more than 6 hours a week

2. About how many evenings a week on the average do you spend at home? CIRCLE the number of evenings. 67

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. About how many evenings a week on the average do you spend out with other fellows in your age group? CIRCLE the number of evenings. 68

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. Do you date? CHECK ONE.

69

- 1.....no
- 2.....yes, about once a month
- 3.....yes, about once every two or three weeks
- 4.....yes, about once a week
- 5.....yes, about twice a week
- 6.....yes, about three or four times a week
- 7.....yes, more than four times a week

5. If you date, do you go steady with one boy? CHECK ONE. 70

- 1.....yes
- 2.....no

6. If you are going steady with one boy, how long have you been going steady with him? CHECK ONE. 71

- 1.....not going steady
- 2.....less than a month
- 3.....1 - 3 months
- 4.....4 - 6 months
- 5.....6 months - 1 year
- 6.....1 - 2 years
- 7.....more than two years

7. Do you earn money by working part time outside your home? (Not counting summer work.) CHECK ONE. 72

- 1.....no
- 2.....yes, 1 - 2 hours a week
- 3.....yes, 3 - 4 hours a week
- 4.....yes, 5 - 6 hours a week
- 5.....yes, 7 - 8 hours a week
- 6.....yes, 9 - 10 hours a week
- 7.....yes, 11 - 15 hours a week
- 8.....yes, 16 - 20 hours a week
- 9.....yes, more than 20 hours a week

8. If you answered yes to Question 7, what kind of work do you do? 73

How much, on the average, do you make a week? 74

H. YOU AND YOUR OPINIONS ABOUT YOUR FUTURE LIFE.

This is the last part of the questionnaire. Perhaps some of the questions have been difficult for you to decide how to answer them. We hope you have answered all of them. You have been most helpful and we appreciate your assistance.

Read each of the following statements: if you agree with the statement, CIRCLE the word "AGREE"; if you disagree with the statement. CIRCLE the word "Disagree". 75 76

1. Parents would be greatly upset if their son ended up doing factory labor. Agree Disagree
2. All that most people today want out of life in the way of a career is a secure, not too difficult, job, with enough pay to afford a nice car and eventually a home of their own. Agree Disagree
3. When a man is born, the success he is going to have is already decided, so he might just as well accept it and not fight against it. Agree Disagree
4. It's silly to put money into a car when the money could be used for an education or to start a business. Agree Disagree
5. The best kind of job is one where people are part of the organization all working together, even if they don't get individual credit. Agree Disagree
6. Even when people get married, they believe their main loyalty still belongs to their father and mother. Agree Disagree
7. Education and learning are more important in determining a person's happiness than money and what it will buy. Agree Disagree
8. When the time comes for a person to take a job, he should stay near his parents even if it means giving up a good job. Agree Disagree
9. Planning only makes a person unhappy since plans hardly ever work out anyway. Agree Disagree
10. With world conditions the way they are, the wise person lives for today and lets tomorrow take care of itself. Agree Disagree
11. Nothing in life is worth the sacrifice of moving away from your parents. Agree Disagree

If you have time, please check to make certain that you have answered all the questions. Again, thanks for your assistance.

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